

Childhood Education

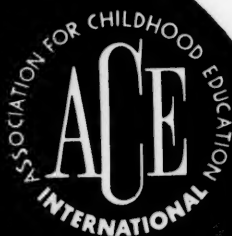
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Fundamentals

for Today's Children

Building Values

February 1959



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Journal of the Association for Childhood Education International

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Microfilm copies of Vol. 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* are available. Sept. 1958-May 1959 (Vol. 35) will be available when volume is completed. Purchase of current volumes is restricted to subscribers to the Journal. For details, write to University Microfilms, 313 N. First St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

For Those
Concerned With
Children 2-12

*To Stimulate Thinking
Rather Than Advocate
Fixed Practices*

1958-1959

Fundamentals for
Today's Children

Childhood Education

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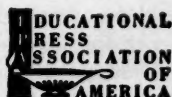
Building Values

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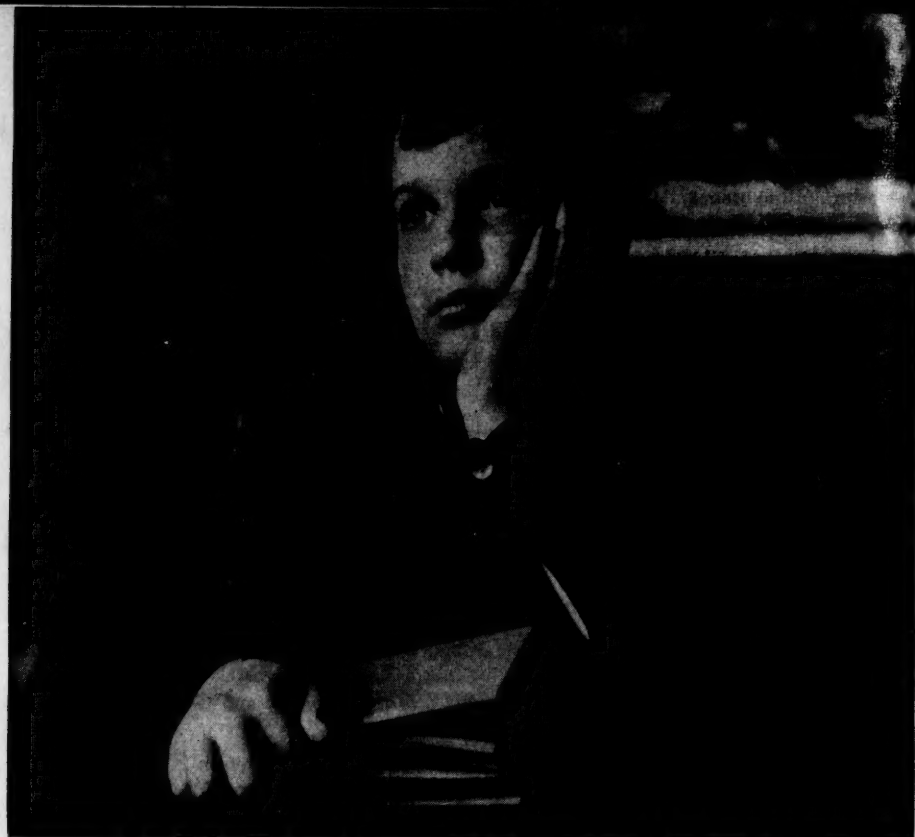
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Subscription \$4.50. International membership (including subscription) \$7. Comprehensive order \$9. Life membership \$100. Single copies 75 cents. Send orders to 1200 Fifteenth Street, N. W., Washington 5, D. C. Second class postage paid at Washington, D. C. Copyright 1959. Association for Childhood Education International, Washington 5, D. C.

Published monthly September through May by

ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION INTERNATIONAL

1200 15th ST., N. W., WASHINGTON 5, D. C.



Courtesy, St. Louis Bd. of Education

With reflective thinking, values undergo change.

Values Are Fundamental

Unless some very significant change takes place in human nature or in environmental sources which affect and shape human nature, children of today and tomorrow will get their values in much the same way we got ours. This is to say they must get them *all by themselves*. Our values do not come as a gift. And we cannot give our values to our children. Values come through "value-ing"; they grow through prizing, cherishing, holding dear—and no one can do this for us. Values also come through discrimination in the face of choices. To discriminate means to weigh, to size up, to judge. If we are to make our own selections, to share in identifying the choices from which our preference is to be made, then no one can do this for us.

Values come from "value-ing" and from reflection. They are also helped into being by the way we plan our lives. When we have made a choice—one that is prized—we are apt to plan our time in a way which gives this value a chance to be expressed. We plan the expenditure of our money in ways which favor the value. We seek readings and other activities which tend to support the value. We often choose to be among

people who share our values. This penetration of our values into our lives is our way of continually testing them. Our values are forever undergoing that change which shared living and reflective thinking never cease to bring about.

Among children who do not develop any strong values we are apt to find indifference and apathy toward school activities. We are apt to find the flighty individual, the one who plays at being someone else because he has no *self* to express, the extreme over-conformer, the nagging dissenter. Among them are the under-achiever, the hesitant and uncertain child.

If we are to help children in this most difficult of all tasks, the building of a self, we must place greater emphasis on values. We must talk man to man with children about their purposes, interests, attitudes, beliefs, aspirations, feelings, activities and ways of thinking. We must ask children intelligent questions for which *only they* have the answers. One or two questions at any one time, involving not more than two or three minutes, would be the maximum. The child's answers would always be accepted with a comment suggesting that he has now made it plain, that you understand better what he said. He leaves this brief encounter in a thoughtful mood.

If this process of serious interchange can be carried on frequently, the child is faced with the deeper questions of what he prizes, what he should prize, and what the alternatives are. Why is this one good? To what does this lead? Do I really want it?

Available evidence suggests that this method leads to reconstruction of behavior as a voluntary act on the part of children. This seems the more appropriate procedure if we are to honor and respect human beings. We cannot legislate values—we have found that out. We cannot indoctrinate values—we have found that out. We cannot coerce children into values through fear or through systematic institutional rules and regulations. Let us turn once again to a serious concern about each child's life: the alternatives he sees in terms of activities, purposes, interests and all the others. As we listen to him, as we reflect about him and as we help him come to decisions which he values, more and more order will come into the situations which are now confused with alternatives and unthought-of consequences.

We used to think that an environment rich in alternatives was rich in potential for child growth. But choices can be overwhelming. Choices are good but they need clarification. The growing child wants to be somebody, a person, a self. He too realizes that the acquisition of values makes a self. Who will listen to him? Who will talk to him, man to man, about his life? Without this intelligent interaction an abundance of choices may be self defeating. With this concern about what is important to him, choices become ordered, life is comprehensible, an awareness of self starts to grow. This is a most important element in the growth of healthy personality.—LOUIS E. RATHS, *Professor of Education, New York University, New York.*

Emergent Citizenship

A Study of Relevant Values in Four-Year-Olds ¹

IN VIEW OF THE LONG-STANDING AMERICAN concern for educating the young to be "good citizens"—constructive members—of a democratic society, Americans have paid remarkably little attention to "emergent citizenship." The study reported here represents a step in exploration of this essentially unknown territory.

This study was made with ninety-two four-year-olds, both boys and girls, in attendance at nursery schools in a north-eastern United States metropolitan area. The children were observed and interviewed in their schools; their teachers and mothers were also interviewed.

The report given here is too brief to allow more than a sampling of the findings. It will serve, however, to illustrate that young children are often remarkably mature in their grasp of some values which are basic in our culture and basic to citizenship.

Premises of This Study

Children, although not yet citizens in the political sense, can be thought of as citizens in a broader sense. In this broader sense citizenship is a matter of behavior with respect to other members of society—of playing a citizenship role.

The way in which this role is played reflects—and is importantly determined by—the value system which has been learned in the course of socialization.

Prominent among the child's values relevant to citizenship are those having to do with authority and authority figures, standards and limits (rules) concerning behavior, interpersonal rights and obligations, what is "good" and what is "bad" (with respect to people and their behavior).

Findings on Authority and Authority Figures

We assumed, as was reasonable, that the authority figures most likely to figure prominently in the four-year-old's scheme of things are Mother, Father, teacher and policeman (in that order). Such appears to be the case, with the policeman a shadowy figure on no more than the periphery of perception for some forty-five per cent of the children.

It is significant that the majority of the children appear to value most or all of their present authority figures in a positive way (i.e., to be affectionate, friendly and accepting toward them). It should be noted, for example, that in connection with their authorities a greater proportion of children think of things they are told "to do" than of things they are told "not to do"; that "conforming and compliance responses" predominate in their projections of own behavior into imaginary situations involving authority figures; that the large majority of children are said (by both teachers and

¹ The author wishes to express sincere appreciation for the contribution made to this study by Dora-Louise Cockrell of the Department of Child Study and Education, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts. The investigation owes its inception and much more to Miss Cockrell. The author is grateful for sponsorship and facilities provided by Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts, through the Department of Sociology and the Elliot-Pearson School. Thanks are due also to the directors and teachers of the eighteen different nursery schools, to the children and to their parents.

The study, a pilot project, was carried out under grant from the Ella Lyman Cabot Trust of Boston. The author is appreciative of this assistance.

mothers) to relate to their authority figures preeminently in positive ways (fond, happy, responsive).

This prevailing positive tenor of child-authority relations becomes more apparent in nature and content when juxtaposed against the most striking exceptions. In children whose stance toward authority and authority figures is generally negative, we find marked aggressiveness and hostility; erratic, unpredictable behavior; defiance and resentment of attempts at control; fantasies involving the violent and morbid; and a sophisticated and cynical command of dissimulation techniques.

Findings on Standards and Limits

As the children view the content of standards there is no vast difference between home and school. They see the authorities in both places as especially given to telling them to get on with personal routines—sleep or resting and so on—and with picking up, putting away or other chores. Parents, however, issue prohibitions about personal safety: on the street, about the car, near the stove, with respect to inclement weather—while teachers' "don'ts" have to do especially with social safety: "don't hit" and the like.

On the whole these four-year-olds are quite aware of the things they are being told to do and not to do, and the majority readily admit that there are certain things they *have* to do. A sizable minority reject this notion, and even more numerous are those who reject the notion that there are any things they must not do.

The children's values become most apparent when they tell us what they "love to do" and what they "hate to do." Most of them "love" to play and do other things which give pleasure and "hate" to do chores or other things which interfere with personal pleasure and gratification.

FEBRUARY 1959

Mary Ellen Goodman of Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts, is now coordinator of conference studies for the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

We find that a few children declare they "love" to extend courtesies or to do things for other people. Observation of actual behavior confirms their declarations.

Clearly not all children, even at four, consistently value the self and its gratifications above other people and their gratifications.

Whatever their ideas and feelings about the self versus others and about the standards held up before them, not many of our subjects frequently behave in a fashion which in the adult world might be called "lawless." Observations show fifty per cent of them quite "civilized" in their behavior and not (in the nursery school setting) failing either in meeting standards or staying within reasonable limits for behavior. In a fair proportion of the remaining cases failures are probably infrequent.

It appears that, in this sample of four-year-old society at least, the young citizens are for the most part reasonably well habituated to accept and abide by the "laws." We infer that doing what they have learned they ought to do is, for most of the children, a positively valued mode of behavior.

Findings on Interpersonal Rights and Obligations

It is noteworthy that adults queried seldom indicated doubts whether four-year-olds do in fact think and act with respect to interpersonal obligations as well as rights. Discussion with the children sustains the view that more than half of them, at least, are enough aware of obligations to understand what we were talking about and to answer affirmatively

when we asked, "Are there things you should do for other people?" They conceive these obligations as having to do especially with giving, sharing, helping and being sociable (playing with other children).

That the four-year-olds also conceive of obligations as a reciprocal matter is attested by both adults and the children themselves. More than half of the children declare that there are things other people should do for them, and the specifics they list are much like the ones they accept as their own obligations.

Fewer children (about forty percent) respond affirmatively when asked about their negative obligations (what they should *not* do to others) and the reciprocal negative obligations of others. But the greatly predominant emphasis of the negative obligations they do conceive is "don't fight, hit, kick," etc.

Over half the children declare that there are one or more things (sharing, helping) which they *like* to do for others, while only a third admit to things they don't like to do for others. Apparently, in spite of the focus on self, which is both a human birthright and an American fetish, over half of these four-year-olds have already yielded in some degree to the counter-effects of social give-and-take and to the altruistic-cooperative values which are also vital in American culture.

We have noted earlier some sharp contrasts between children who are especially positive and those who are especially negative with respect to citizenship orientations. In their modes of relating to others the pattern of negatively oriented children is marked by assertive, insistent, emotional and unreasonable preoccupation with their own rights and others' obligations. The child is aggressive, hostile, uncritical of his own and highly critical of others' interpersonal behavior.

He values highly what he conceives to be his rights and is indifferent both to his obligations and to the rights of others. The positively oriented children, conversely, give evidence that they are sensitive to obligations and that they value the rights of others.

Findings on "Good" and "Bad"

The large majority of our four-year-olds give evidence that they are aware of that polarity so deeply built into our culture—the polarity of good and bad.

The labels most frequently used are, according to mothers, the words "good" and "bad," with "nice" and "naughty" fairly close seconds. It is reported that close to forty per cent of the children use "good" and the same proportion "bad." Between them the children are said to use some fifty other terms of roughly synonymous sorts. Moreover, as mothers tell us, nearly all of the children are quick to judge what is good and what is not.

How do these children categorize people and behavior with respect to good and bad? Their mothers say—and the teachers agree with their admitted limits of knowledge—that it is matters of interpersonal relationship which the children most often judge good or bad. It is "good" to share, help, play (nicely) with, be friendly, kind, polite. The opposite kinds of interpersonal relations—fighting, hitting, snatching—are "bad."

These findings reinforce our conclusion from the interpersonal relations data: values characteristic of orderly social living have without doubt taken root in more than half of these children.

In Summary

This study supports the view that children learn very early some of the basic values essential to orderly social living and characteristic of American culture.

If this small sample is representative, we may conclude that the majority of children learn, in their first four years of life, some values fundamental to "good citizenship." It appears too that, even among children who have in common an urban middle-class background, there can be a very wide range of variation. A few will be generally and highly negative. At the opposite end of the range, a few will be generally and highly positive with respect to citizenship behavior and values.

This study suggests the need for further investigation of citizenship values

in young children. It may be that values learned by the age of four are persistent and difficult to alter radically in later years. If longitudinal studies lent support to this hypothesis, then parents and teachers would be less inclined to take negativism and "poor citizenship" in preschool children casually or to accept these manifestations as representing only a passing developmental "phase." An ill-advised tolerance toward deviant behavior and non-constructive values in young children may prove to be one of the numerous factors which underlie our society's high rates of delinquency and crime.

A Child's Real Mind

My Version of What Goes on Behind a Child's Head

PERHAPS YOU'VE WONDERED HOW A CHILD CAN SEE THINGS YOU NEVER DREAMED about. Well, I happen to be one, so I shall tell you in my own words what I think about it.

I think it is a wonderful thing when you have a good imagination. You can be out west, or in space, or in a plane. You can be anything you want to be, or do anything you want to do there.

Another mighty power of a very small child is that he is always the center of attraction and likes it—ha, ha! A child is a very delicate thing. It can be hurt very easily on the inside as well as on the outside. It is a stronger thing than a hundred tanks or four forts, because in its own way it can capture your feelings; and your feelings are one of the most precious things to you and to the child. A child will always try to please you in his or her own way.

—By a NINE-YEAR-OLD BOY

Seeking Clues to Children's Feelings and Attitudes

This progress report of the 1956-1958 ACEI Intermediate Committee was prepared for the committee by Gertrude Wood and Marian Jenkins, consultants, Los Angeles County Schools, California. Members of the committee and other teachers who sent in reports came from sixteen states and two provinces. Marian Jenkins was chairman of the committee.

How the Study Began

THE ACEI INTERMEDIATE COMMITTEE, during the years 1956-1958, studied some aspects of evaluation in relation to social studies, particularly ideas related to children's attitudes and feelings. The committee started with the premise that systematic study of children leads to better and sounder teacher judgment. Thus the teacher's actions and decisions about children would be more valid, intelligent, purposeful and significant.¹

Instruments and Methods Used

Materials and suggestions were sent to consultants and teachers who had indicated an interest in the study. These included the keeping of anecdotal records of children in problem-solving situations, autobiographies and responses to open questions such as "What is *democracy . . . loyalty . . . allegiance?*" "What is a *pioneer . . . a colony . . . a settlement?*" Another type of question such as, "What did you do between the time you left school Friday and your return on Monday?" was also suggested. The form for the Springfield Interest Finder² and forms for the sociometric devices,

"Casting Characters for a Class Play"³ and "This Is Our Class at a Picnic,"⁴ were included.

Materials from eighty-eight classrooms were sent in. This progress report describes the children's responses, points up clues to attitudes and feelings and suggests ways teachers may extend learning experiences, select content and utilize resources as they work with children.

Children's Responses

In the Springfield Interest Finder the child is asked such questions as his wishes, what he would like to learn more about in school, his likes and dislikes in relation to school, what he wants to be when he grows up, the most interesting thing he has done in the past week, one of his happiest days and his best friends in the class. A summary of responses may raise such questions as:

Are the interesting things done recently by the children related to school work, other children, family or community activities?

Are his desires in regard to the future realistic according to the teacher's view of his present abilities and

¹ Prescott, Daniel. *Child in the Educative Process*, Chapter I, "The Teacher's Task."

² Jersild, Arthur T. and Tusch, Ruth J. *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education*.

³ "Casting Characters for a Class Play" was adapted from a similar device produced by the Division of Tests and Measurements, Bureau of Educational Research, Board of Education, City of New York.

⁴ "This Is Our Class at a Picnic" was developed by Gertrude Wood, Consultant, Division of Research and Guidance, Los Angeles County Schools, California.

successes or do they seem to be unrealistic and far fetched?

What is the relationship between his liking for a subject and his success in learning as revealed by comparing his responses with his standardized tests?

A sociogram of the responses on the Interest Finder to the item, "Best Friends," brings up questions as: Are those who are frequently chosen the same children who are successful in school? Are they the ones who like most all the school subjects and have rather realistic wishes or not?

The "Three Wishes" may be summarized using such categories for recording as: wishes related to self, friendships, family, school and those which involve money or economic status. It is generally found to be true that first reactions of children are reliable and that what the child mentions is of less importance than the *pattern* of what is said.

The teacher may list the responses on a work sheet or on the chalk board (without names attached) and talk over with children the "why" of their responses. For instance, these were the wishes about "Family" that children in a fifth- and a sixth-grade class expressed. Two girls wished for brothers, one girl wanted a baby sister, three children wanted to visit relatives some of whom lived far away, one boy wished his parents to be healthy, a girl wished her mother would learn to ice skate, another girl wished they didn't have to move.

In a discussion the teacher will come to understand that the concerns about families are important to many in the class. Does this concern warrant some attention? Perhaps the use of appropriate reaction stories would be helpful here in extending values and clarifying children's feelings. These questions may come to mind:

How do the children who do not want to go to school or those who want good grades fare on the sociometric devices and how do they stand academically? In what particulars do they do well or poorly?

Are the wishes about "self" related to the present or future? Are these wishes in the realm of possibility? How can the school help the child to realize his hopes and aspirations?

If the wishes are realistic, are the children aware of how they might be accomplished?

"Casting Characters for a Class Play" is a sociometric device asking children to assign others to roles of hero, hero's friend, heroine, bully, etc. In addition, the child is asked to assign himself to roles. For summary a tally sheet may be prepared with the names of class members listed in alphabetical order both down the side of the page and across the top of a barred sheet of paper. The number of the role assigned by each child is entered in the column under the child's name.

In this device the odd numbers are desirable roles, the even numbers undesirable. By reading column A *down* it is easy to find out how others see pupil A in terms of this device.

Does this child appear to others in a favorable light?

Does the child appear to some as hero and to others as playing undesirable roles?

	A	B	C	D	E	F
A	10	5	11	3	7	
B	1		4			3, 5
C	2	10	12	6		9, 11
D	8			12	2	3
E		6		9	2	11
F						

In looking over the assignments the child makes for himself, these questions are raised:

How does the child see himself?

Is this consistent with the way he has been characterized by the class?

"This Is Our Class at a Picnic" asks the child to place the teacher, himself, and other class members in circles drawn on a sheet of paper. The circles are placed in various groupings. This sociometric procedure gives clues to the child's view of friendship patterns, cliques, lone children, and himself within the group. Teachers can compare the response on the "Picnic" with the "Class Play." Ideas which may be considered in looking over the summaries of these two procedures are:

Who appears to be most accepted?

Which children are consistently and inconsistently viewed by others?

To get at the *why* of assigned roles it may be helpful to talk over with children why certain kinds of assignments were made.

Is a child who is working up to ability also one who is viewed frequently as a friend and given positive roles?

Which children have the most positive climate for learning, in being wanted and in being surrounded by

friendly groups? Which the most negative? Can the teacher help create a better "invitation to learning"?

Where "discipline" problems exist learning conditions sometimes change dramatically when children are re-seated according to the results of a sociogram. These children may also be invited to join work groups or committees to undertake projects with children they chose.

In "Fun with Foods" children are asked to name foods eaten almost every day in their family, the foods eaten at a friend's house over the week end, and their favorite foods. Other parts relate to foods a child would be praised or scolded for eating. The child is also asked who would praise or scold him in such situations and why. The results may indicate who takes the responsibility for food habits at home. One senses the moral and ethical standards of the family and something of the economic status. For children who wish to be healthy, to grow up soon, to be pretty, etc., as revealed in the Interest Finder, the food habits may be indicative of some need for health education, facts about nutrition and perhaps instruction from the nurse.

⁵ "Fun with Foods" was developed by the school nurses of El Monte City School District, California.

Here are a few responses children gave to the questions:

(Please read across)

What is *democracy*?

BOY: To be loyal to the government and to withhold its laws.

GIRL: The right to vote.

BOY: A group of civilization people.

GIRL: Something that helps the world get along better.

What is meant by *loyalty*?

Not to cheat in games, etc., or lie.

Be loyal, not tell secrets of America to other countries.

To be square.

To be loyal to someone or something. Be loyal and not let them down. To be true.

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Boy: I think that democracy means the freedom of rights.

Girl: When the people of a country are free and have a government, are building up their country.

Girl: Be sanitary, well dressed and free.

Boy: The government.

Girl: Where all people have the same rights.

Means to do things for other people and to be loyal to all that loyalty is due.

When you are asked to help your country become a bigger and better land to be free and live in, you do it and you try hard.

To be kind to others and do good things for others.

To be friendly, and do what you are asked to do.

When everyone is forced to tell something but shows loyalty by not telling.

How can the teacher deepen and extend children's understandings of *democracy* and *loyalty*? Social studies in the middle grades often are concerned with our country and our hemisphere. What relation do these findings have to the understandings developed in such studies?

An autobiography of a middle-grade boy shows how a small amount of writing revealed clues about the child's feelings, the family's values and something of the child's cultural background. The child's use of the English language also indicated the kind of help he needed:

"This Is My Life: I am born on 26 March in a Hospital in Vienna. I am 2 second child from my family. I am carried in a red blanket. My mother was 24 year old. My father was 31 year old. My mother was work in the house. We live by my Grandmother. The name of the School is Voksschool. The boys go in one School. The girls in another school. In my room was 37 boys. I am in Vienna 5 year in the school going. My teacher was a man.

"I kom to ——— with a plane. It is hier very good. I like hier to school going. I have hier a new sister. I have hier many friend. I got to Christmas

many presents: I like to kom to school with a bycycle."

The autobiography and "Week End" give capsule views of the family "way of life." The child's responsibilities, his hobbies and recreation are often mentioned and his out-of-school friendships revealed. In addition one learns of the child's language usage, handwriting and spelling.

Teacher Synthesizes Findings

The teacher may wish to make summaries of information on a few children who are of special interest for one reason or another. He may also note any ideas for helping children that occur to him. Reading the materials listed in the bibliography for further ideas will also be rewarding.

Here, in an anecdotal record, a sixth-grade teacher reveals her sensitivity and acceptance of children. This is one type of summary that is helpful:

"N. B., a Puerto-Rican boy, had much to offer in social studies at the time we were learning about the territorial possessions of the United States.

"He has been in the States about two years and speaks English well, which he could not do upon arrival.

"During our studies he brought much illustrative material and gave reports. Most of the information he gave us was first-hand experience. The class especially enjoyed the report on harvesting sugar cane. N. didn't agree completely with the book information and explained from his past experience how *he* did it 'back home.'

"Another interesting aspect was that of citizenship. The children developed a more realistic understanding of the meaning of citizenship as it regards people living in our possessions, despite their color, language, or culture.

"Because N. had to consult his mother on several occasions in regard to hand-craft and other information, she became interested in the class and visited us. However, she speaks no English, so N., her son, interpreted for us."

The teacher goes on to say:

"The above incident portrays an aspect of the broad concept of the real meaning of social studies; namely, developing children's attitudes toward other groups. It must be more than developing tolerance; it must be teaching boys and girls to accept graciously the distinctive contributions of each group."

Here is a picture of two children as revealed in another type of summary:

AMELIA, IN THE FIFTH GRADE

Wishes: For an older brother, for skates, to do art.

Sociogram Based on Best Friends: Not chosen by anyone. She chooses Roy, Julia, Timothy, who are chosen fairly often by others.

Other Items on Interest Finder:

Likes social studies and says it's the most interesting thing she does at school.

Wants to learn more of social studies. Doesn't care for spelling (she spells quite well, however, in "Week End" account). Wants to be a nurse.

Happiest day "when I came here" (naming the town of present residence).

Class Play: Roles assigned to others:

1 (hero), 9 (never mean) 11 (teacher would leave in charge)—Paul

2 (mean)—George

3 (heroine)—Julia, who is an unchosen child on the class sociogram

4 (gets angry)—Bernice

5 (hero's friend)—Martin (yet on "Picnic" she has him set off by himself)

6 (bully)—Frank

7 (sense of humor)—Jessie, who is only chosen once on sociogram

8 (doesn't every say anything)—Drusilla

10 (lazy)—Audrey

12 (knows all answers)—Larry

In the play Amelia feels she could play role 3 (heroine), and she feels the teacher might ask her to. Other children would ask her to play 10 (laziest person, one who never does anything).

Picnic: Paul and Amelia are put in a group by themselves—just the two of them. She writes the names of many children in circles which she adds to the form, and all are placed alone.

Questions for the Teacher: Does Amelia really see the class as a whole at all

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clearly? In conversation with her, how does she react to questions regarding reasons for her choices in the play? For placement on picnic? What is her home like?

Foods: Mom and Dad appear to the child to be in agreement about foods. They would praise her for eating food that she hates. They would scold if food was eaten at the wrong time.

Week End:

Indicates much time spent looking at TV

Family went to movie together.

Attended Pioneer Girls.

Attended a show in which her sister participated.

Commented on a dog in the show and a dress that matched the pink poodle.

Helped with dishes on Friday.

Questions for the Teacher: In conversation, the teacher might follow up on what it is about social studies that she likes. What about other out-of-school activities? What does she know about nursing? Why was she happy to come "here"? Where was she before?

Further suggestions: In conference with Amelia, how does she see herself as being accepted by other people?

Secure books on health, nursing, etc., for her. Perhaps she might read the daily paper for news of nurses, doctors, hospital services, clinics. This might be an individual project to contribute to social studies.

Arrange for her to participate in committee work. Provide various groupings so she can interact with children more. She may need to learn the values which the peer group holds.

LON, IN AMELIA'S CLASS

Wishes: Atomic set, powerful microscope, large chemistry set.

Sociogram of Best Friends: Not chosen. Chooses Ernest, Mack, Timothy, who are among those chosen fairly often.

Other Items on Interest Finder:

Likes: Would like to learn more about science. Doesn't care about writing. Likes gymnasium best and to go swimming. Likes to play with chemistry set and microscope outside of school.

Wants to be a champion swimmer. Interesting things at school done during the last week—watching the Christmas lights put up.

Happiest day was "when we got our swimming pool." Likes to swim.

Class Play: Roles assigned to others:

1 (hero) 9 (never mean)—Lawrence

2 (mean) 10 (lazy)—Ricky

3 (heroine)—Jessie

4 (gets angry) 6 (bully)—Harry

5 (hero's friend)—Henry

7 (sense of humor)—Mack

8 (doesn't ever say anything)—Alfred

11 (teacher leaves in charge)—Julia

12 (knows all answers)—Bernice

In the play he feels he could play role 5 best and could play 10. He makes no response to the question of the teacher asking him to play a role. Other children would ask him to play 10.

Picnic: Puts self in group with Ernest, making a pair. Teacher in center of large group of nine girls.

Foods: Mom seems to be the one most in evidence.

Week End:

Watched TV *much* of time.
Walked home from school.
Played pool at a friend's house.
Built model plane Saturday after-

noon.

Attended Sunday school and a show later.

Got up late Saturday morning; went to bed early Sunday.

Suggestions: Lon seems to have many resources for play at home and a variety of interests. Does he have friends outside school? His ability to write and spell is interesting (*capean swiner—champion swimmer*). Any information on this? Is he a good swimmer?

Are there other children in the home? Family relationships? What is the teacher's estimate? What is his school history? Does he participate in games and sports at school? What is his attitude toward academic work, toward other children? What about his physical maturity, health, appearance?

The teacher's synthesis of the responses about an individual and the group will lead him beyond the superficial to viewing children with much greater depth than before. He will value these various procedures as sources of information which help him learn more about children and their aspirations and ways they see the world in which they live. He will also find that this systematic study will raise many, many questions. This is really the objective. As each teacher builds into his thinking the attitude of inquiry, he learns to accept children for themselves and thus changes his own attitude toward them. This is the essence of creative teaching and of the scientific method which is fundamental to any profession.

[*Ed. note:* All children's names used are fictitious.]

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* Excerpts from the bibliography prepared for the Intermediate Committee, ACEI, 1956-1958, by Marian Jenkins, Chairman, and Gertrude Wood, Consultant.

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Values of Children

How They Are Developed

Values are ever present in our behavior with children. Adults who only moralize about values are not teaching them as they believe they are. William E. Engbretson, associate secretary, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Oneonta, New York, cites studies and references to support these ideas.

VALUES IN OUR SOCIETY

WHAT IS A VALUE? A VALUE IS DEFINED as a directive factor in human behavior. There is much evidence that people operate upon the basis of their personal values. These values may sometimes come into conflict as they are expressed in behavior. Usually there is a hierarchy of values which tend to predict what is done in given situations within experience. This is an individual view of values. All people evidence them in their behavior, but they probably vary tremendously in the degree to which they can verbalize and identify their respective value hierarchies.

On the other hand, in our society there is general subscription to some mutually determined values which appear to be consistent with the ideals of a democratic way of life. The ten values listed by the Educational Policies Commission¹ are subscribed to here for purposes of discussion. They are:

1. Human Personality — the basic value
2. Moral Responsibility
3. Institutions as the Servants of Men
4. Common Consent
5. Devotion to Truth
6. Respect for Excellence
7. Moral Equality

8. Brotherhood
9. Pursuit of Happiness
10. Spiritual Enrichment

These values appear to reflect the highest purposes of our society insofar as the public school is concerned. They form a common core for discussion and mutual planning.

Levels of Value-Judgments

We recognize, with Rasey, three levels of value-judgments:²

(1) Unconscious bodily responses to situations (one blinks one's eyes when an insect buzzes near)

(2) Habits or automatic responses (one holds a pencil a certain way, adopts a nervous mannerism to express tension)

(3) Consciously reasoned actions
These deserve attention when a conflict in possible actions is brought to one's awareness and there is not enough previous experience with it in order to have habitualized a response. When enough of these reasoned responses are accumulated, along with non-rational responses, a person arrives at what has been variously termed as a "life style" or "life pattern."³ This may be described as a pervading tendency to behave in a like manner in different situations. This is also the level of fine nuances of values

and their accompanying behavior with which we are increasingly concerned as adults.

Life appears to be a search for individual clarification and refinement of these *higher order values* to which are applied increasing personal knowledge and understanding. Overstreet has described this as a pattern of growth from immaturity to maturity, from egocentricity to sociocentricity, from dependence to independence.⁴ In order to stress the social nature of man there might be added a third step . . . from dependence to independence to *interdependence*.

Conflicting Values

Children are largely born into and raised in a rigorous society. The rapid pace of life is marked with obstacles. Children are beset by contradictions and conflicts in their attempts to evolve consistent value system. Albert Schweitzer has aptly called this the "zeitgeist" or the rather frantic and sometimes frenetic scurrying of modern day society. This is apparent to an observer: Gorer noted that Americans seemed to lack the values learned at his mother's knee.⁵ Value conflict is not necessarily peculiar to today. Shane and McSwain illustrate:

The story is told of old Zeph, a late nineteenth-century Yankee storekeeper in a cross-roads village who provided a home for his nephew, Caleb. Caleb, in return, ran errands, clerked behind the counter and made himself useful in every way a twelve-year-old could. Early one morning an overnight visitor to the living quarters on the second story above the Yankee's store was slightly taken aback by the ensuing dialogue:

ZEPH (Calling down the stairs to his nephew): Caleb, lad, have ye sanded the sugar?

CALEB: Yes, Uncle Zeph.

ZEPH: And have ye larded the butter?

CALEB: Yes, Uncle Zeph.

ZEPH: Good, lad. Now come up and join us in prayer.⁶

We see on many sides the conflicting values to which children are exposed—sometimes because the adults from whom the children are learning cannot perceive their own inconsistencies in value-judging and in action. Although humanitarian values are espoused verbally, our society is described as being "moneytheistic" by Montague. Henry says, "Mabel, do you realize we gave over \$400 to charity last year? Oh well, I'll make sure to get that back some way on my income tax." A medical intern serving in the slum area of one of our major cities remarked that almost every home had a television set and a refrigerator even when there was no food to eat nor decent clothing for the children to wear. Thus our material values seem to be primary.

How Do CHILDREN DEVELOP VALUES?

Inconsistencies in values are well documented. How do children develop their values amidst this maze of contradictions and paradoxes? It is surprising that they learn to make decisions at all—much less morally sound decisions.

In Our Society

To seek answers to how children learn values, one can look to research in child growth and development *in our society*. The societal aspect is emphasized because there is some evidence that the values children learn in our society are not necessarily those that are always held in other societies, nor are they always the same in our own. Anthropologists tell us of a culture where children are taught to be hostile and aggressive toward everyone. This is achieved in part by smearing the infant's food around his mouth but not actually feeding him. American society would not consciously and deliberately teach children to be hostile since hostility is not value-judged positively. On the other hand, we hold brotherhood

as a value and attempt to impart to the infant a feeling of friendliness, love and affection by fondling, cooing and close personal contact commencing after birth. This may contribute to the personal security which leads to an adult ability to give of oneself in a cooperative manner; in effect, to apply brotherhood.

In the Family

Children appear to learn initially by imitation, identification, example and contagion. These are all experienced as forms of interpersonal communication—in the primary sociological unit, the family. Montague states: "Example is stronger than precept and imitation is the most immediate form of learning. Words have no meaning other than the language they produce."⁷ One thing is certain, children do not learn what is desired by just being told. Too often they experience the adage, "Do as I say, not as I do." They learn by doing and by thinking about what they are doing. This experiencing includes adapting and internalizing the value patterns of those with whom they are in daily contact.

Bishop performed an experiment which indicates that children behave as they have experienced.⁸ In a sense the child, like the chameleon, takes on the coloration of his surroundings. Thirty-four children between the ages of forty and sixty-seven months were placed in social situations with a neutral adult. The children illustrated the behavioral patterns of their parents. The study supports the contention that *what children learn at home is likely to be carried over into their social situations.*

An illustration follows of parental values and the unique thinking of a six-year-old girl based on her personal experiences:

People

People are composed of boys and girls, also men and women. Boys are no good at all until

they grow up and get married. Men who don't get married are no good either. Boys are an awful bother. They want everything they see except soap. My ma is a woman and my pa is a man. A woman is a grown up girl with children. My pa is such a nice man that sometimes I think he must have been a girl when he was a boy.⁹ (dictated to teacher)

Mussen and Conger remark, "The child learns his earliest, and probably most fundamental, lessons in ethical behavior in the family setting. As identification with parents becomes more firmly established, more of their 'evaluative responses' are taken over."¹⁰

An acquaintance of mine is fearful of lightning. In discussing this with the youngster's mother she said, "I really don't know why she should be afraid of lightning. I myself am just terrified of it but I never let her know it! I'd hide!" The youngster herself described how her mother would put the child in her bedroom during a storm and then would go into her own bed and pull the covers over her head.

In the movie, *Fears of Children*,¹¹ a father reacts to his son's behavior by saying (paraphrased), "I can stand some of it . . . all but that stubbornness. If there is one thing I can't stand it's stubbornness. My father would never tolerate it and neither will I!"

These illustrations show children's experiences color their value development. Desirable values that the family demonstrates in daily life are also learned by the child. Brown, Morrison and Couch have shown a high positive correlation between the social reputations (variously measured) of 105 ten-year-olds and their affectional parent-child interactions.¹² Honesty, moral courage, friendliness, loyalty and responsibility, if demonstrated at home in positive social interactions between parents and children, will be reflected outside the home by the

children. If these interactions and acceptance and respect underlying them are strong, pleasing and effective for the child, he will tend to demonstrate them even if his peer group does not. This is less true in later childhood than in early childhood because the peer group offers increasingly valued models for the child to imitate and identify with.

First, values are learned in the family.



Second, values are learned in school.



Stages Identified

The general stages of a child's development of values can now be identified. Piaget,¹³ Lerner,¹⁴ and MacRae¹⁵ all indicate that a child develops increasing moral or ethical flexibility as he grows. Young children up to seven or eight years of age tend to respond to problems of values by ascribing in an almost blanket manner to the values they've learned first in the family, then in school and in the community. Following this, there comes a brief period of two or three years which marks a progressive decline in applying values without question. By early adolescence (ages eleven or twelve) the youngster uses less strictly specific rules of conduct and begins to evolve and utilize more general principles which derive their support from the previous values learned, as well as from new values of the situation at hand. He is also more open to—and even desires—a mutual consideration of the problem. He likes to plan and evaluate with others.

The rapidity and degree of the influence of the peer group upon the child's values may well be dependent upon how

Courtesy, St. Louis Bd. of Education

strongly he has previously identified with his parents. If the parental values have been sufficiently internalized and if the child perceives of himself as a person who does the "right" thing, then peer values which are directly opposed are resisted. He has, by this time, had a wide variety of models to identify with which give him a more complex experiential background for his decisions or value-judgments.

To list these stages, the following steps are in chronological order:

1. Identification with parents and family and relatively blanket acceptance of extrinsic values.

2. Identification with teachers and peers and dawning questioning of previous values. Values becoming much more intrinsic.

3. Identification with increasing numbers of models, first those immediately contacted and then those learned about such as athletic heroes, famous personages and movie stars. This leads to further questioning and gradual refinement and individual clarification of values.

It is during this third stage that the child really begins to see himself as a person with reasoned values. He is developing what Laycock calls a "sense of community."¹⁸

Tracing Specific Behavior

The foregoing presentation has been generalized. One could utilize the growth and development literature to trace

specific behavior patterns too. Gesell and his co-workers have noted a developmental sequence or behavioral gradient in stealing and honesty.¹⁷ They show that it is normal for the young child to take things that do not belong to him. Ilg and Ames picture this:

"At five he prefers pennies to half dollars. They have meaning for him. At six he responds to the beauty of some trinket and he takes it before your very eyes even though he denies it when accused. At seven his passion for pencils and erasers is so strong that he wants more and more and more—any within hand's reach. And by eight the loose money in the kitchen drawer is indeed a temptation, for he is beginning to know about money, its value and what things it can buy. When the theft is discovered, he is punished and admonished. He probably excuses himself that he 'didn't mean to' and he certainly promises that he will 'never do it again.' Another day—another theft."¹⁸

This mode of behavior lasts briefly. If adults can understand what kinds of behavior to expect from children, they can act more intelligently and understandingly. Many other specific patterns of children's behavior have been studied. These can best be summarized by saying that *children value most what has immediate worth to them*. They are the center of their universe: *I, Me, My* and *Mine* precede the child's understanding of *We, Us, Ours*, and *They, Them* and *Theirs*.

It is almost axiomatic that learning to

Third, values are learned in the community.

Courtesy, Chicago Public Schools



understand, respect and accept others is dependent upon one's own self-understanding, self-acceptance and self-respect.¹⁹ A child once wrote about himself, "I'm no good. I'm stoopid. I can't do anything right. Things are always happening to me." Adults who lived and worked with this lad appeared to have mislaid the basic value of respect for human personality. The teachers of this boy have a great task ahead.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER

What does an understanding of value development mean for the teacher? When the court rules that a teacher stands *in loco parentis* a grave responsibility is posed. No two children are alike in every respect. No two family patterns are identical. Yet, the teacher stands as the representative of a society that holds a common core of moral values and democratic concepts that are supposed to be learned. Otto says, "In a democratic society there is no need to make all people think alike, feel alike, or behave alike, but there is a common core of . . . values and . . . concepts which all should apply in their relations with one another."²⁰ This is the task of and the challenge to the teacher.

The teacher who only moralizes about values is not teaching them as he believes he is. It is difficult to understand how one can teach *about* moral and spiritual values without tacit recognition of the fact that values are ever present in our behavior *with* children. The teacher is asked—wrongly or rightly—to judge children. Is it not possible to judge *with* children thereby affording them the opportunity for further development? When a teacher stands in front of the mirror in the morning, rather than ask if his tie is straight, he might ask, "Are my real values showing?" The answer is, "Of course!"

Because our values do show, because we serve as models, because we communicate to children with every word, mannerism and gesture . . . *our finest people must teach*. Every child has the right to be with a friend, a person who respects and values him for what he is now as well as what he is to be.

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Ways of Living

Each to His Own

Although these sixth graders studied India before she became independent and China before she was divided, the implications are as valuable today.

IN 1946 A CONFERENCE WAS HELD AT The Little Red School House in New York City to discuss the needs of children and to plan a curriculum that would best prepare them for living in a post-war world. One of the questions considered was the choice of a social studies program as the children's horizons extended beyond their neighborhood and nation. What countries should be studied? Where was the greatest need for understanding? Where would the focus of world attention be when these children grew into maturity? How should these countries be presented?

Among the decisions reached was that part of the curriculum of the sixth grade would be the study of Asia, with emphasis on India and China. Here was an area where need for understanding was great—a blind spot in American education. Few educators considered Asia as an important subject despite the fact that on this, the largest of continents, lived more than half of the human race. The countries in which these hundreds of millions of people lived were in the process of achieving independence or preparing to do so, for colonialism by the western powers was definitely on the way out and there were complex political, social, economic and cultural problems involved in the upsurge of new nations—presenting an exciting, meaningful project for study.

Bias and Stereotypes

In implementing this choice of curriculum there were many problems. In the study of India there was little material available for elementary schools, and most of this stressed the odd and picturesque aspects, emphasizing the differences between Indians and Americans. Much of this material reflected the author's ethnocentric bias. Books with wide circulation tended to create an antipathy toward India and Indians or served to reinforce widely held stereotypes. Other material stressed India's problems and how the British were meeting them in their most important colony in these troublesome times.

The stereotypes children had about Asians were many. Chinese were strange, sinister, inscrutable people—laundrymen, restaurant owners or gift shop proprietors. Indians were snake charmers or maharajahs with harems and jewels or rode elephants. Most Asiatics were different, their ways impossible to understand, speaking strange languages and practicing strange rites. To many children Asiatics were poor, ignorant people who had not yet learned "how to live right, the way people here did," as one

Louis Sarlin, sixth-grade teacher at Massapequa, Long Island, New York, formerly taught at Little Red School House, New York City.

child wrote. They were interesting as subjects for travelogues.

In the study of China some materials had become available that tried to interpret China to Americans. An organization concerned with raising money for Chinese war victims had prepared material for schools; some of the studies, articles and films were well conceived and created for meeting children's needs. With the demise of this organization there was no comparable source.

All Have Similar Basic Needs

There were other problems. What approach would make our study most meaningful? No one way would be adequate but it was decided that an anthropological approach, considering the ways of life of India and China as examples of different ways of meeting basic human needs, might be promising for helping children understand cultural differences and customs. This approach involved some basic assumptions: *that wherever there were human populations they had similar basic needs and impulses to eat, clothe, ornament and shelter themselves, propagate, protect their women and children, and value ethical and spiritual experiences which gave comfort and confidence.*

Other basic assumptions were: *that cultural differences were worthy of consideration; that children should be taught that peoples everywhere were entitled to the privilege of practicing the ways they wished without coercion or adherence to our superimposed cultural imperatives; that it was important to help these children cultivate the ability to see their own patterns of living with some degree of objectivity, to understand that their way of life was not the only natural way of life but that other cultures could and did have goals different from theirs in values, religions, ways of working, languages,*

dress and family patterns. It was thus hoped that children not only would learn about India and China but also that these learnings would illuminate the patterns of their own lives, would enrich their understanding of *their* own culture and possibly lessen ethnocentric tendencies often prevalent in American thinking.

About Clothing—and Themselves

In practice, among the most valuable sources of learning were those cultural problems that not only taught the children about Asia but also about themselves. One such memorable experience was a discussion of clothing. We had been discussing Indian clothing, and the children had become aware of the differences in headgear of different people in India—the Gandhi cap, the fez, the horse-shoe-shaped turban of the Parsees, the different styles of the Sikhs, the Rajputs and others. They were fascinated by the grace and beauty of the sari but when they saw the dhoti, the garment of the Indian farmer, they were not impressed. As one child remarked, "Can you imagine wearing an oversized diaper for a suit?" Others nodded in agreement. We began to discuss clothing. Why clothing? The answers to them seemed obvious: to protect oneself from the weather, to cover one's body in modesty, to look "nice." Among the practical values, they thought clothing should be available to those who needed it—inexpensive and accessible, easy to clean or replace, not likely to go out of style, and have pockets for things.

The children, trying to create such a garment, became aware of the dhoti in another sense. First they quickly saw that it was very practical—no buttons, button-holes, lapels, linings, inside or outside pockets; no stuffed shoulders; no cuffs to catch dirt; no zippers to stick. It didn't have to be dry cleaned but could be

washed while bathing. It was easily replaceable, could be unnoticeably patched or cut in half and one half replaced. It didn't go out of fashion, was cool and comfortable and within most people's means. Comparing it to our clothing, the children concluded that it was a very wonderful garment and that the Indians were very intelligent in their choice of clothing.

Their Ways—Suitable Ways

Their curiosity led them into a study of clothing. They asked good questions: Why do we wear clothes that are styled in one way—why neckties—why uniforms? The meaning of clothing assumed new dimensions for them. They soon saw the cultural basis for choice of clothes. Some of them noted that women wore thin stockings in all kinds of weather, silk dresses, Bermuda shorts, dungarees, toreador pants—not for “sensible” reasons, but because it was the fashion. A committee was formed to arrange an exhibit of different clothes from many parts of the earth in terms of style, country, suitability for young and old, men and women and children. The report they gave was an eye-opener for the group. They pointed out that most people wore clothing that was culturally approved, sometimes without regard to weather. They were aware that Arabs wore heavy flowing robes in hot weather and sweated; that Australian aborigines wore no clothing on freezing nights, as did the inhabitants of Tierra Della Fuego, with one of the most inhospitable climates in the world.

After the pictures of wooden shoes, the bowler hat, 18th century court dress, fashions of yesterday and today, primitive peoples and folk costumes were placed on the bulletin boards, a question was asked: “What do you think of all

this?” The response was enlightening: *People wear different clothes, like they eat different foods and speak different languages, and not because it is logical or always reasonable but because they have been brought up to think their ways are the suitable ways.*

“There She Comes . . .”

The children had a great deal of fun trying to describe a lady on Fifth Avenue as seen by someone from a distant place with other views and ideas. One child wrote: “There she comes now—dressed in the skins of animals, her legs covered with tight-fitting veils, her feet in animal skins, heels in the air over three-inch spikes. Her face has white stuff, her cheeks are red, her eyes have blue on the lids and her hair is colored yellow—or, possibly, if she is greyhaired, blue or light purple. Her eyebrows are sometimes plucked and have new ones painted on. She smells wonderful—or awful—wears bright stones on her hands if she's lucky, and stones dangle from holes in her ears. I can't even describe her hat except to say that if a bird sat on it, it probably would hatch baby birds!”

The group went back to their study, aware of having learned much and having grown in insight about other peoples and themselves. They were becoming aware that their ways were part of the fascinating panorama of human ways.

Differences in Perspective

There were other experiences that made them aware of differences in perspective. We had been discussing the food of China and many of the children said that they were fond of Chinese food. They thought the Chinese were among the best cooks in the world but eating with chopsticks was a silly, stupid way to eat—“You get food all over yourself and it just seems stupid to choose sticks

instead of knives and forks." One of the children suggested that a group visit a local restaurant where they and their families ate and ask the Chinese proprietor why Chinese people ate with chopsticks. The reply was illuminating. He told them that Chinese people did not like to be butchers at their dinner tables; they did not think it proper to let people see the blood run down half-cooked meat, or have people cutting their food while eating. To eat should be a pleasure, not an exercise, he told them. Chinese food is either cut to size or chopped for convenience, and after some practice can be easily eaten with chopsticks. The children reported to the class, who were impressed by the logic, but as one child indicated, "The Chinese don't know what they're missing in a good roast beef dinner!"

When the children studied India they cooked Indian food, with shredded cocoanuts and relishes. They made chappatis (unleavened bread) in a broiler. Here, too, they had something to learn. When they saw a film in which an Indian family was sitting on the ground and eating with their fingers, they deplored such man-

ners; but a little research soon convinced them that a goodly portion of the human race ate without benefit of chairs, tables, tablecloths, napkins, knives and forks.

Time and again the children shuttled from their ways and values to those of peoples in distant places and times, becoming constantly aware of the cultural differences and the interest these had for them. There was no attempt to sanctify these because they were differences. The cultural patterns of a people were considered a given datum—a functional aspect of their society—and, as such, worthy of attention and study and not necessarily approved. *This was what the world was like—rich variety of peoples, customs, languages and ways of life—theirs and others.*

It is to be hoped that these learnings will help provide a perspective that, in the words of a well-known anthropologist, will tend to emancipate individuals from a too strong allegiance to every item in their cultural inventory . . . and produce a person more likely to live and let live, both within his own society and in his dealings with members of other societies.



TEACHING IS TO A SIGNIFICANT DEGREE AN ART, AND THE BETTER THE TEACHER the more this is apparent. Many outcomes of teaching may be related quite directly to specific teaching procedures, but some of the most significant influences of fine teachers are very subtle in nature and rest largely on the direct personal relations of teacher and pupil. For example, the power to stimulate the pupil to high endeavor, to help him grow in his appreciation of himself and of others, to lead him to develop a spirit of inquiry, to create the drive to continue his education, to develop a sense of beauty and an appreciation of the mysteries of the world in which he lives—these are qualities which must be cultivated pretty largely by the teacher through a multitude of small actions in day-by-day association with the pupil.—HOLLIS L. CASWELL, *President, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. From "Teachers College Record," November 1957.*

Choosing Books for Young Children

"So many good books are published for children these days that we can afford to be choosy," states Joy Dawson, assistant professor and teacher of four-year-old group, Campus School, State University Teachers College, New Paltz, New York.

WHAT IS YOUR EARLIEST MEMORY OF A book? Is it of a book that you looked at or read to yourself or that someone read to you? What kind of feeling colors that memory? I can remember two books that I looked at when I could not have been more than two or three years of age. One was about a large family of cheerful chickens, which had meaning for me because I lived not far from a chicken farm. I liked the chickens in the book better than the real chickens because they weren't noisy and nervous and I could study them apart from all the confusing smells and racket of the farmyard. The other book had only one picture that I remember: a man with a peg leg who left a long trail in the snow—alternately the print of a shoe and then a round hole—all across the page. I didn't know it was a peg leg then; I only sensed that it was not right, not like anything I knew, something altogether strange and mystifying.

Perhaps your memories of first books will convince you, too, that books for young children should be selected with care. The word "care" sounds too burdensome; actually, choosing books is a delightful task which calls for imagination, enthusiasm, common sense and insight into the mind of the child.

Simplifying Experiences

Books for two-year-olds need to be closely related to actual experiences. These books have extra value when they simplify real experiences to the extent that the child can control or study such

a visual idea as *dog* or *chicken* apart from touch, smell, sound, motion and the vivid, overwhelming impressions of real life.

As experiences begin to get sorted and clarified, the child becomes ready for more of what books can offer: story content which may or may not involve slight departures from strict realism. By two and one-half or three years of age, children can understand that a dog may talk in a story although they know that real dogs don't talk. By the time they have reached four years of age most children can absorb concepts that are closely related to real experiences, although not exactly similar. Thus, when listening to *Curious George*,¹ four-year-olds who have never been to New York City can begin to understand the idea of a skyscraper and a fire-escape. The similarity of a fire escape to a long stairway is close enough. There comes a point, though, when it seems advisable to postpone the introduction of a charming book just because there are too many ideas which are confusing. Here are some of the mysteries presented to a four-year-old by *Madeleine*:² What is an appendix? Why do the girls sleep all night in rows? Where are their mothers? Answers to these questions are much more readily understood by six-year-olds.

Four-year-olds are quite ready to enjoy a story with a little suspense. A satisfactory solution or ending is essential. *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*³ has a surprising solution which was sug-

gested by a child who read the first part of the book. *Little Wild Horse*⁴ has an ending which is the perfect answer to a child's imaginative hopes. A little boy longs for a horse of his own, tames a wild one with great patience and rides him home to the ranch in triumph. The description of the boy's gentle, persistent and not always successful efforts creates an atmosphere of breathless suspense.

Identifying with Characters

If the child can identify closely with a character in the story, his interest will be great. The character may be a lost kitten, a child hiding from his mother, or a teddy bear who gets frightened when he tries to live in a cave like real bears. It is not unusual to see children playing the roles of these characters as they go about their play. "My legs felt wobbly all over, just like that poor colt's," said a young horse lover, aged four and one-half.

Many books appeal to children because of their humor. We all like to read some books just for fun. The humor may be simple minded as in *The Happy Man and His Dump Truck*,⁵ or it may be quite subtle (from a child's point of view) as in the story of *Theodore Turtle*,⁶ who is in a continual process of finding or losing everything that he owns. There is a book for every type of humor. It is fascinating to try to predict what will amuse a particular child. Remember that the child can't enjoy nonsense until he knows that it is nonsense and not real. Six-year-olds thoroughly enjoy the Dr. Seuss books because they know from experience that this is in the realm of pure fantasy.

Confusing Realism and Fantasy

Equally beloved are the books which impart real information. Children are hungrier for knowledge than we tend to realize. The facts need to be an exten-

sion of the child's actual experience rather than unrelated bits of wisdom. The Lois Lenski books, quaint as they may seem to us, are packed with information that fascinates a child as young as two. *The Little Train*⁷ and *The Little Fire Engine*⁸ explain a good deal—at a young child's level—about these mechanical wonders and their uses. No plot is needed. There are many excellent books about animals—*Stripe*⁹ and *Tim Tadpole and the Great Bullfrog*.¹⁰ There are some simple but realistic books about going to the hospital, having a new baby in the house, or growing a seed. But there is an amazing lack of informational books about moving vans (many children have moved at least once), garages, cement mixers, road building equipment, water pipes, furnaces and all the complicated paraphernalia of modern life that seem almost magical to children unless explained. Instead we have books about trains and busses that get jealous and run away, mailboxes that cry from loneliness, engines that pay court to lady cabooses and heaven-knows-what other wild confusions. None of these help children to make any sense out of the technological world in which they live.

Having Special Quality

There are some books that have a special quality, a real artistic or literary value. The illustrations of Dorothy Lathrop, The D'Aulaires, Leonard Weisgard and the Petershams, for example, have real beauty. The lovely flow of simple language in *The Little House*,¹¹ by Virginia Lee Burton, won the book a Caldecott medal. And sometimes there is a children's classic in which no one word or color could be changed, so perfect is the whole.

Such perfection is rare. Even so, before choosing a book, we must ask ourselves whether the book is in good taste

and if the illustrations are appropriate. An interesting story loses much of its value if the illustrations are the kewpie doll type or distorted caricature.

A few words of caution may be advisable. Some of the fears and confusions caused in young children's minds by books are often due to the right book read at the wrong age. The old folk tales of other cultures, *Three Little Pigs*, *Hansel and Gretel*, *Little Red Riding Hood*, *Rumpelstiltskin*—to mention only a few—should become part of the child's heritage, but only when the child knows what is real and what is make-believe and when he can handle the real fierceness of these tales. The breathless silence in which children often listen to such stories, while flattering to the adult reader, may be a sign of fright. Young children often have nightmares in which animals chase them and eat them up; listening to folk tales reinforces these fears. The whimsy

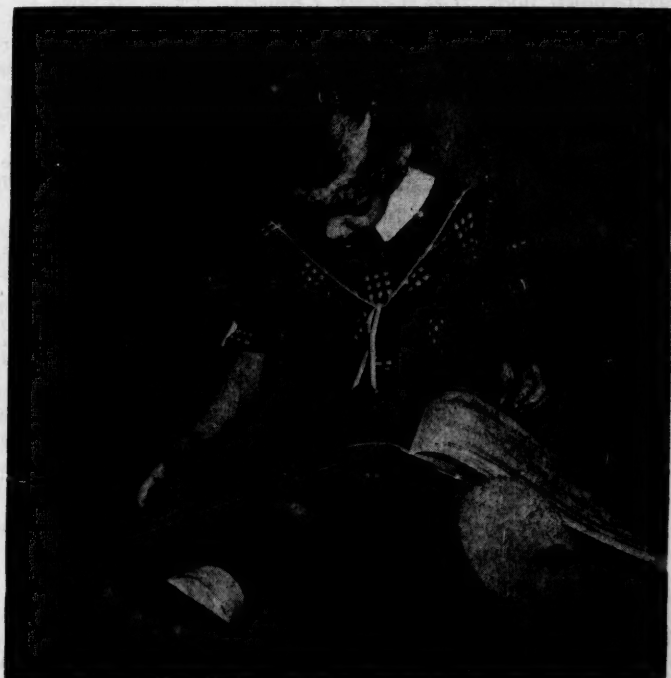
or high romantic flavor of such stories will be appreciated by older children.

Folk tales are not the only offenders. Even an imaginative, charming book such as *Babar, the Little Elephant*¹² should be saved for children of six years of age and over. When four-year-olds hear it, all the delight of the story is lost because of two terrible episodes: Babar's mother is shot by a hunter; King of the Elephants eats a poisoned mushroom, turns green and dies (in full color). One four-year-old refused to come to school for fear *Babar* might still be on the bookshelf. At age forty, it is likely to be his sole memory of nursery school!

Creating Feelings of Anxiety

Another type of fear that books can instill is more difficult to put one's finger on. A book that moralizes about the "bad" child makes children worry that

Enjoying a good book



Courtesy, Fulton Co.,
Ga., Public Schools

they themselves are "bad"—especially if they identify with the character as the story unfolds. They feel that they, too, would have urges to play those pranks. A story about a young squirrel who scares baby robins and is scolded by mother squirrel and soundly spanked by father squirrel is much more alarming to children than *Roy Rogers Captures the Rustlers*. The children are led to sympathize and identify with the young squirrel and they feel pangs of guilt and anxiety when the parents are angry. Moralizing in children's literature varies all the way from gentle approaches to tolerance to stern lectures on behavior. We do not need to probe into the psychological and sociological implications of this moralizing as deeply as Dr. Reisman does in his analysis of *Tootle, the Engine*,¹³ a Little Golden Book. (I am referring to the chapter entitled "Tootle: A Modern Cautionary Tale" in Reisman's well-known book, *The Lonely Crowd*.) But we do need to ask, "How does this book make a child feel?" If we think it makes a child ask himself, "Am I bad too?" we can be sure it is creating feelings of anxiety which tend to worsen rather than improve behavior.

So many good books are published for children these days that we can afford to be choosy. Books that are mere attention-getters, that have questionable values are not good enough. We want our children to have the best!

¹ *Curious George*. Hans Augusto Rey. Illustrated by author (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1941).

² *Madeleine*. Ludwig Bemelmans. Illustrated by author (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1939).

³ *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*. Virginia Lee Burton. Illustrated by author (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939).

⁴ *Little Wild Horse*. Hetty Burlingame Beatty. Illustrated by author (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1949).

⁵ *The Happy Man and His Dump Truck*. Miryam. A Little Golden Book (New York: Simon & Schuster).

⁶ *Theodore Turtle*. Ellen MacGregor (New York: Whittlesey House, 1955).

⁷ *The Little Train*. Lois Lenski. Illustrated by author (New York: Oxford University Press, 1940).

⁸ *The Little Fire Engine*. Lois Lenski. Illustrated by author (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946).

⁹ *Stripe*. Robert M. McClung (New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1951).

¹⁰ *Tim Tadpole and the Great Bullfrog*. Marjorie Flack. Illustrated by author (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1932).

¹¹ *The Little House*. Virginia Lee Burton. Illustrated by author (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942).

¹² *Babar, the Little Elephant*. Jean de Brunhoff. Illustrated by author (New York: Random House).

¹³ *Tootle, the Engine*. Gertrude Crampton. A Little Golden Book (New York: Simon & Schuster).

A Two-Year-Old

1. Is ever on the move and demands to be an active part of the world in which he lives.
2. Has a wide-open curiosity about his environment and needs to explore with his body, with his feelings, and with his intelligence.
3. Likes to carry things around and is likely to hide objects out of sight.
4. Is growing in motor independence and seeks to cast off restrictions.
5. Needs to see how powerful he is and test his strength in the face of great obstacles.
6. Depends for security and warmth and emotional safety on friendly persons.
7. Demands control just as vigorously as he rejects it.
8. Needs to work toward his own freedom and toward self-control in its largest sense.

—From an article by Katherine Reeves, in *Child Guidance in Christian Living*. Copyright 1958 by The Methodist Publishing House. Used by permission.

Concerns for

Education of Service Children

THE RECENT AND UNEXPECTED DISCLOSURE of Russian technological advances has caused the American family to become increasingly concerned about the state of our public educational system in general. The service family has always had an unusual amount of interest in that system. Beset by all the problems shared by every family with school-age children, they have many more that are peculiar to the modern military way of life. How will their children adjust to the constantly changing school environment made necessary by periodic changes in duty stations? How will their children compare with their counterparts in the average American community? Above all, what educational opportunities can they expect when off they go to join Father who operates a radar scope in Okinawa or flies a bomber in Morocco?

Traditionally, every American child is entitled to a free public education. The service child on an air base in the Azores or Japan has this right no less than any civilian child in Boston or Seattle. It is estimated that United States Air Force parents alone have 160,000 school-age children, of whom one-fourth to one-fifth are always located overseas. Providing these children with an acceptable educational opportunity is a task of considerable magnitude in this day of extensive world-wide military development. That every service child is given the opportunity is a credit to the moral and legal sense of responsibility of both military and civilian authorities. The services would be the first to admit that self-interest adds strength to this sense of responsibility. A man of real value to a military service—his expensive training period behind him—is the stable family man with children to educate. It is poor economy to lose him for lack of a school system here or overseas.

Local Schools

In the United States the responsibility for providing a suitable free public school education for dependent children of military per-

sonnel rests with the local educational agency of the area in which the parents reside. Many school districts have experienced tremendous increases in school memberships because of Federal activities and, as a result, have been unable to provide adequate school facilities. Recognizing this problem, Congress in 1950 enacted two laws designed to relieve it. PL 815 permits governmental financial assistance in essential school construction, while PL 874 extends aid for required school maintenance and operation. These contributions vary in individual cases; the amount of aid is determined by the United States Office of Education Commissioner in consultation with local and state authorities.

Aid to local school systems is not limited to direct financial assistance. Many military bases have school buildings within their boundaries. Built by the Service concerned, these schools are most often administered by, and are an essential part of, the local school district. A familiar sight in communities adjacent to military installations is the yellow Army, Navy or Air Force school bus carrying children to and from the local school. These buses are provided when the local school transportation system is not available or adequate for all children requiring transportation. Military commanders, being parents too, are always willing and eager to furnish specialized assistance or support as may be desired by the schools.

Overseas School Systems

Before World War II the education of children of military families stationed overseas was left up to the individuals concerned. Today, overseas military commanders are responsible for providing the school system necessary for the education of dependents of

Lt. Col. Benjamin A. Mead is Director of Plans, Department of the Air Force, The Pentagon, Washington, D. C.

all military and civilian members of their command. Last year, service children attended well over a hundred elementary and secondary schools in sixty-eight foreign nations. There were thirty-nine overseas high schools accredited to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in the United States. Long established bases have appointments equal to a like-sized community in the States, while new or temporary bases may have to get by with whatever unused space can be found. Although each of the services operates its own school system, close cooperation avoids duplication of facilities and insures uniform educational opportunity for all children. Normally, one service operates a common school for all military children in each locality, with costs prorated between services affected. Funds are annually appropriated by Congress for the overseas educational program. However, actual costs have always exceeded what Congress has been willing to give, and money must be diverted from other sources in order to maintain an acceptable level of pupil instruction. Finding this money has undoubtedly contributed to the sleepless nights of many an overseas commander.

The military services have wisely confined themselves to providing the operational base for the school system and placed the conduct and supervision of the professional school program in the hands of qualified civilian educators. In Europe a distinguished school administrator has exclusive charge of the school program for the Air Force with a district five times as large as the United States. Each of the countries in which his schools are located creates unique and individual problems. But overseas school systems are generally the envy of United States school boards. For example, there is never a lack of teacher applicants—as many as fifteen for each position. As a result, the level of teacher qualification is high. The same administrator for the Air Force in Europe could report that in 1957 nine-tenths of his teachers had a masters degree in education or at least five years teaching experience. The academic standard maintained in service-operated schools is at least equal to that of schools provided at public expense in the United States.

Service-operated schools offer a limited curriculum but stress the fundamental sub-

jects. Regular American textbooks, furnished by the government, are used. The usual subjects are complemented in many countries, such as Japan, with instruction by native teachers in dancing, art and folklore of their country. Often the local language is taught in both elementary and secondary grades for those who desire it. School facilities range from the one-room school, dear to American legend, to multi-story buildings with the latest in classroom equipment. Where the requirement exists, schools may make provision for boarding high school students whose parents are in isolated areas such as "Iron Curtain" countries. The smallest school in recent years was at Chia Yi, Taiwan, where twenty-two youngsters, grades one to eight, were taught by the same instructor. A typical large school is the Forrest Sherman School in Naples where over a thousand students, grades one to twelve, are taught by forty-five teachers. Whatever their size or wherever their location, these schools offer educational opportunities never to be gained from a textbook or TV set.

The service-operated school may be established when as few as twenty students require elementary schooling. However, in some instances it may be economical or desirable to use local schools, where rigid language, curriculum and scholastic requirements are met. Appropriated school funds, subject to current per-pupil limitations, are used to pay for such services, with the parents concerned meeting all charges over and above those borne by the government and the military services. In Panama, the Panama Canal Company opens its schools to military dependents and even furnishes the necessary transportation. A number of church schools in foreign lands are accredited, through the sponsor church in the United States, to state school boards. Some parents prefer to send their younger children to the local national school, considering it to be an educational opportunity well worth the risk of some possible future school board disapproval. Children just starting to school have little difficulty in learning a foreign language when their teacher and classmates speak no English.

Correspondence Courses for a Few

If no service-operated or contract schools are available, parents must teach their own children, using correspondence courses approved by and paid for by the government.

Not many children are affected, for all services attempt to send families to places where school facilities exist. Correspondence courses are used a great deal, however, in instances where a limited number of students are in grades other than those locally taught or a student desires to study a subject not included in the local curriculum. In Greenland, where dependent travel is limited, all grades above the eighth are taught by correspondence courses from the University of Nebraska. Unfortunately, there is no guarantee that all United States school systems will accept for credit successful completion of correspondence courses.

The overseas dependent school system has been in operation since 1946. In the years following, thousands upon thousands of American children have attended these schools. They have gained a personal understanding and an intimate knowledge of the diverse peoples of the world today. Through these children all America is being exposed to new ways of life and all America will reap the benefits. The Armed Forces have recognized and are doing their best to meet the threat to our national survival stated by the historian, H. G. Wells: "Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe."

NEXT MONTH

March: Using Communication Lines Effectively

In the editorial H. Bailey Gardner, Kansas City Public Schools, writes on lines of effective communication.

"Knowing about Power Structure" is written by Laurence B. Johnson, New Jersey Education Association, Trenton.

A. D. Buchmueller, Child Study Association of America, New York, involves teachers, parents, children and the public in "Inter-Communication."

Line drawings by Nadeen Waggener, Kansas City Public Schools, show ways of communicating with parents.

James D. Hoffman, Michigan State University, East Lansing, and William Enghretson, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Oneonta, New York, maintain "The Children Want to Be There" in a three-way conference of child, teacher, parent.

Jennie Wahlert, Washington University Nursery School, St. Louis, introduces Nesta Lenhart, extension class student, who tells her understanding of child growth and development theory and what she intends to do about it. "Hear Ye, Young Teachers!" is her appeal.

Keith Osborn, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, shares a recording from a camp leader's planning session.

Also included are "Concerns for Children Are World Wide," news and reviews.

News HERE and THERE

By FRANCES HAMILTON

New ACE Branches

Deer Park ACE, Texas

Los Angeles State College ACE, California

Rockingham County ACE, North Carolina

Childhood Education Center

From April 1, 1958, to January 15, 1959, members of the Association have given \$114,056.10 to the Childhood Education Center Building Fund. This is the result of the accelerated schedule initiated at the Conference in Atlantic City last April. More and more Branches are making repeated gifts to the Building Fund. More and more individuals are sending personal gifts, thus becoming ACEI builders.

Evidences of members' growing enthusiasm for the project reach Headquarters in every mail. In one letter: "We do recognize the tremendous responsibility ahead, but the keen interest of members and the past evidences of great effort give encouragement and confidence for the future." From a telegram: "Heartiest congratulations on plans to move ahead! You can count on us."

Branches are seriously at work on the Center project. They are encouraging individual gifts, and many of them are also involved in group projects "to help bring up the average."

March 15 is recognized as a significant date in the progress of the Association. A construction loan will be arranged for at that time. The size of the loan will be determined by the amount of cash then in the Building Fund. Until March 15, all gifts go into meeting the actual cost of the Center. After that date, a portion of each gift will need to be used for the payment of interest on the loan. Members and Branches who can send checks before March 15 will actually save money for their Association.

Something New for Branch Members

For the first time in the history of ACEI, each ACE Branch member will receive an ACEI bulletin. It will be mailed before May 15 to every Branch member whose dues and membership cards for the year 1958-59 have been received at Headquarters and to comprehensive orders. This is part of a program

designed to bring all Branch members into closer contact with the total work of the Association.

More About Reading is the interesting and promising title of this new bulletin prepared especially for Branch members. It is made up of selected articles on reading from CHILDHOOD EDUCATION and an ACEI bulletin.

Additional copies are available from Headquarters office for fifty cents.

ACEI Information Service

The Information Service maintained at ACEI Headquarters to answer the numerous and varied questions that come to us daily provides an important way by which members and children are served.

Two specific services are available:

Replies to inquiries for information and help: These cover a wide field—from a request for the name of a publisher of a certain book or a list of colleges offering courses in early childhood education, to requests for help in curriculum planning and information on legislation for children, standards for nursery school and kindergarten programs, certification of teachers for such schools, to requests for materials, counsel, and/or references on child development. Sometimes it is necessary to refer inquirers to other sources for guidance.

Other requests which we receive but cannot answer are those for names of pen pals, courses of study, outlines of units for teachers and term papers for students, pictures and posters for classrooms, or directions for teaching special subjects.

Loans from our Loan File: Services from the Loan File consist of reprints, pamphlets, booklets and articles from various sources. The materials may be borrowed by International and Branch members only. The would-be borrower should give as much information as possible about the services wanted. If pertinent materials are in the files, they are loaned for a two-week period. If none are available, suggestions are made about other sources of information.

It is most important that anyone using Information Service state his type of membership (International or Branch) and that a

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Branch member give the name and location of his Branch.

The communications which come to Information Service keep us in close touch with teachers, parents and others who work with children. Occasionally they indicate trends and point up pressures and tensions.

Requests for information and loans are referred to Epsie Young and Mae Riddle. They, with help from others as needed, give much of their time to these services.

Ventures in Values

The Philadelphia ACE demonstrates its concern for children by publishing *Ventures in Values*. This cleverly planned and illustrated pamphlet alerts teachers to studies in which children reveal the values they hold and suggests approaches teachers, parents and others may make to help children examine their values and reach out for more desirable ones. It is also "down to earth." Prepared for the use of Philadelphia teachers, the pamphlet is also available to others at fifty cents a copy from Mary Percival, 2332 South Broad Street, Philadelphia 45, Pennsylvania.

Annual Meeting of Department of Elementary School Principals

The 1959 meeting of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, will be held in Los Angeles, California, February 28-March 4. The conference theme will be, "Im-

proving Leadership for Elementary Schools." General session speakers include Roma Gans, Teachers College, Columbia University; Andrew D. Holt, vice-president, University of Tennessee; Warren J. Schmidt, assistant director, University Extension, University of California at Los Angeles; W. Robert Moore, head, Foreign Editorial Staff, National Geographic Society; and G. Mennen Williams, governor of Michigan.

Southern Association for Children under Six

The Southern Association for Children under Six, an organization of people from thirteen southern states who work in nursery schools, kindergartens and day care centers with children under six, will hold its tenth anniversary conference in Nashville, Tennessee, April 27, 28 and 29. Information about program and arrangements for the Conference is available from Opal Wolford, president of the Association, Berea College, P. O. Box 1997, Berea, Kentucky.

National Kindergarten Art Show

The National Kindergarten Association is sponsoring a National Kindergarten Art Show. It will open April 20 with displays in the New York Public Library, New York University, Metropolitan Museum of Art, Brooklyn Public Library, Bankers Trust Company, Bank Street College of Education, New York City Board of Education and Newark, New Jersey, Public Library.

Gift to ACEI Building Fund

I hereby give to the Building Fund of the Association for Childhood Education International, a corporation organized under the laws of the District of

Columbia and now having offices at 1200 15th Street, N.W., Washington 5, D. C., the sum of _____ Dollars.

SIGNED _____

ADDRESS _____

ENCLOSED \$ _____

DATE _____

☐ I AM A MEMBER OF _____

ACE BRANCH

☐ I AM AN INTERNATIONAL MEMBER

☐ I AM NOT A MEMBER

Gifts to Building Fund are tax exempt.

FEBRUARY 1959

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1959 ACEI STUDY CONFERENCE

St. Louis, Missouri—March 29-April 3

Theme: *Fundamentals for Today's Children*



HAROLD TAYLOR, *President, Sarah Lawrence College.* Gives keynote address, Monday morning, March 30



HELEN HEFFERNAN, *California State Department of Education.* Speaks on materials, Monday evening, March 30

General

Session

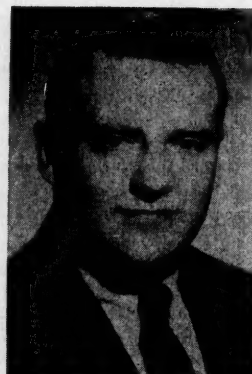
Personalities



M. G. BOWDEN, *Principal, Cass School, Austin, Texas.* Demonstrates materials, Monday evening, March 30



PAULINE FREDERICK, *NBC Correspondent, United Nations.* Speaks on international relations, Thursday evening, April 2



GEORGE Z. F. BEREDAY, *Teachers College, Columbia University.* Speaks on comparative education, Wednesday evening, April 1



*Best bridge a Troll ever had—
see how steady it is?*

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Books for Children

Editor, ELIZABETH HODGES

BLESS THIS DAY: A BOOK OF PRAYER FOR CHILDREN. *Compiled by Elfrida Vipont. Illustrated by Harold Jones.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 750 3rd Ave., 1958. Pp. 95. \$3.25. Prayers from the whole range of Christian literature, Catholic and Protestant, make up this inspiring and attractive book. Organized by occasions for which prayers are especially needed (prayers for waking, for bedtime, for help, for praise and thanksgiving), this is a book to bring inspiration and help to the whole family. The compiler's choice of material is admirable, ranging from the Psalms, through Isaac Watts, to writers of the present day. All ages—E. H.

THE CHINESE KNEW. *By Tillie S. Pine and Joseph Levine. Pictures in color by Ezra Jack Keats.* New York: Whittlesey House, 330 W. 42nd St., 1958. Pp. 32. \$2.50. Similar in content and treatment to these authors' earlier books about Pilgrims and

Indians, this tells how things were done in ancient China, how these same things are done today, and how children can reproduce these activities in the classroom. Block printing, pottery making and puppetry are some of the subjects covered. The illustrations are striking and informative. Ages 7-10—E. H.

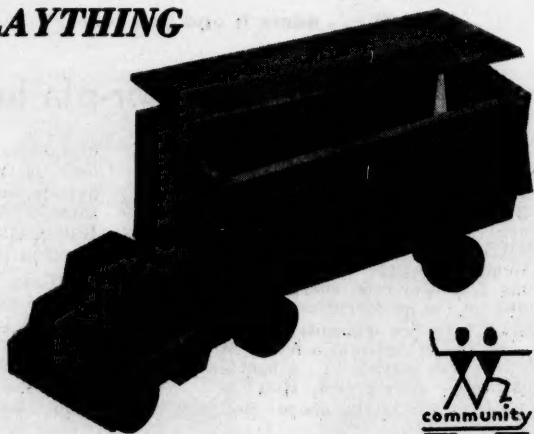
FELICE. *Written and illustrated by Marcia Brown.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 5th Ave., 1958. Unpaged. \$2.95. Perhaps the best book yet by this talented artist is this cat story laid in Venice, where Marcia Brown has recently visited. Felice is a little striped cat whose adventures provide the background for the lovely glowing pictures of canals and palaces. Ages 4-8.—E. H.

A FRIEND IS SOMEONE WHO LIKES YOU. *Written and illustrated by Joan Walsh Anglund.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 750 3rd Ave., 1958. Pp. 24. \$1.75. A tiny book with much charm in pictures and story, this tells how to recognize a friend and how to be one. This happy little story is especially recommended for the timid child. Ages 4-8.—E. H.

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I WENT TO THE ANIMAL FAIR: A BOOK OF ANIMAL POEMS. *Selected by William Cole. Illustrated by Collette Rosselli. New York: World Publishing Co., 2231 W. 110th St., 1958. Unpagged. \$2.75.* This year's crop of children's books has, unfortunately, included very little poetry. This anthology includes humorous verses about animals from such well-known authors as Emily Dickinson, Laura E. Richards and Edward Lear. Good fun in rhymes and pictures. Although in picture book format, it should have appeal for all ages.—E. H.

IN THE MIDDLE OF THE TREES. *Written and illustrated by Karla Kuskin. New York: Harper & Bros., 49 E. 33rd St., 1958. Pp. 38. \$2.50; library binding \$3.25.* Rollicking rhymes and uninhibited pictures make these verses for young children very special. They are about the things that little children know best, and the viewpoint is that of the children themselves. These are recommended for reading aloud to ages 4-8.—E. H.

JOHNNY OF JOHNNYCAKE. *By Katherine Carter. Illustrated by Howard Simon. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 419*

4th Ave., 1958. Pp. 140. \$3. The setting for this story of Colonial Maryland is the real Johnnycake Road, near Baltimore. Johnny is a carefree, irresponsible boy until a small dog comes into his life. Then he realizes that, if he is to keep the dog, he must find some way to contribute to the meager family income. This he does so successfully that his father, an itinerant shoemaker, is able to open his own shop and stay home with his family. Good characterization and authentic facts about Colonial farm life are found in this appealing story. *Ages 8-12.*—E. H.

LET'S GO TO THE UNITED NATIONS HEADQUARTERS. *By Joanna Cochrane. Illustrated by Alan Moyler. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Ave., 1958. Pp. 47. \$1.95.* Equally useful for the child who will visit the United Nations Headquarters and for the one who will not, this is a guided tour of the buildings in simple text and clear pictures. Brief facts about the purposes and work of the UN are given, and many interesting activities related to a study of the organization are listed on the inside jacket. *Ages 8-12.*—E. H.

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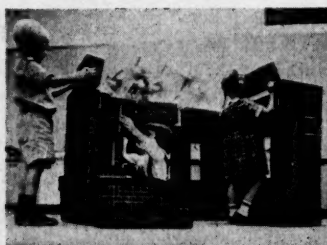
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THE MOONEYED HOUND. By Billy C. Clark. Illustrated by Nedda Walker. New York: C. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Ave., 1958. Pp. 128. \$2.75. One of the best dog stories of 1958 was *The Trail of the Hunter's Horn*, by Billy C. Clark. This sequel to the earlier story tells how the boy Jeb trains his one-eyed, bob-tailed hound to be the best coon dog in his neighborhood. Through Jeb's faith in his dog and Grandma Quilby's faith in Jeb, Mooneye wins the Kentucky Championship Coon Dog Field Trials. Here is a moving story of the Kentucky mountains and the colorful characters who live among them. Ages 8-12.—E. H.

THE NIGHT THE LIGHTS WENT OUT. Written and illustrated by Don Freeman. New York: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Ave., 1958. Pp. 40. \$2. Young Thacher liked pretending to be a pioneer and was therefore delighted when a snowstorm left his home without electricity. Cooking in the fireplace and reading by candlelight were fun, but when the television and the electric train wouldn't work, Thacher decided that pioneer life was not for him. This very real little boy in a familiar situation should appeal to ages 6-9. Excellent illustrations!—E. H.

PAGES, PICTURES, AND PRINT: A BOOK IN THE MAKING. Written and illustrated by Joanna Foster. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 750 3rd Ave., 1958. Pp. 96. \$2.95. A much-needed book is this simple and clearly illustrated account of how a book is created, from the time the idea takes shape in the author's mind to the finished product. The author's experience as writer, illustrator and juvenile editor gives the book authority and clarity. The chapters on color printing and design are especially valuable to anyone interested in modern processes in bookmaking. Ages 9-16.—E. H.

SYLVESTER JONES AND THE VOICE IN THE FOREST. By Patricia Miles Martin. Illustrated by Leonard Weisgard. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 419 4th Ave., 1958. Unpaged. \$2.75. Each day when Sylvester Jones went for a walk in the forest, he heard a voice calling his name: "Syl-VES-ter! Syl-VES-ter!" Each day he left his mother and his little log house and went in search of the voice. At last he learned the secret and made a new friend—a valley quail who shared his lunch. This gentle story is filled with nature lore in text and handsome pictures. Ages 5-9.—E. H. (Continued on page 284)



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(Continued from page 282)

THREE TALES FROM ANDERSEN. By Hans Christian Andersen. Illustrated by Gustav Hjortlund. New York: The Macmillan Co., 60 5th Ave., 1958. Unpagged. \$2.50; library edition \$3. This beautiful new edition of *The Emperor's New Clothes*, *It's Perfectly True* and *Simple Simon* was designed and printed in Odense, Denmark—Andersen's birthplace. The translations are by R. P. Keigwin, a distinguished Andersen scholar; the amusing colored illustrations are by a Danish artist. Highly recommended for ages 6-10!—E. H.

WIDGET. Written and illustrated by Clare Turlay Newberry. New York: Harper & Bros., 49 E. 33rd St., 1958. Pp. 27. \$2.50; library binding \$3.35. A most beguiling kitten looks out from the jacket of this new picture book by a gifted painter of cats. Widget is a very naughty and venturesome kitten who has to be rescued by her mother after an encounter with a puppy. The pictures tell the story, with only a line or two of text on each page. Ages 2-6.—E. H.

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Books for Adults

Editor, ELIZABETH KLEMER

CHILDREN'S ART EDUCATION. By Estelle Hagen Knudsen and Ethel Madill Christensen. Peoria, Ill.: Chas. A. Bennett Co., 237 Monroe St., 1957. Pp. 208. \$4.80. The authors are experienced educators with rich and varied backgrounds in the art education field. This is reflected in the basically sound art education philosophy that permeates the book. This manuscript has grown out of actual classroom experiences which have been recorded in a novel way.

This book is divided into two main areas of study. "Classroom Art Experiences" is presented through conversations of art consultant, classroom teacher and children. These experiences are developed by giving definition to classroom preparation, organization, evaluation and guidance. The second division, "Children's Art Media," could serve the classroom teacher as a reference for a clear, concise description of many art media used most generally in the elementary schools.

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This book could serve as a practical aid and valuable addition to a classroom teacher's professional library.—Reviewed by JO ANN TANZER, assistant professor of art, San Diego State College, Calif.

FIT TO TEACH. By American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, National Education Association. Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W., 1957. Pp. 249. \$3.50. The authors of this yearbook dwell on a topic of great and timely importance—physical and mental fitness of teachers. The content is factual and “unemotional,” emphasizing the need for understanding and utilizing basic information on health which will assist in strengthening the mental and physical well-being of members of the teaching profession. In addition, this volume serves as a ready reference for medical personnel who serve the schools.

An imposing list of contributors, including several medical doctors, makes this publication significant. Extensive bibliographies and concise summaries assist the reader in gaining insight into a large number of health problems.

The authors effectively enlist the resources of every classroom teacher, every administrator, the medical profession and the community at large in an attempt to identify the kind of environment within which teachers should function. Two searching questions are dealt with in a most effective manner: Is the individual teacher fit to teach? Are the school and the community fit places in which to teach?—Reviewed by EVANS ANDERSON, assistant professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.

GUIDING LANGUAGE LEARNING. By Mildred A. Dawson and Marian Zollinger. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1957. Pp. 534. \$4.75. This revision of an earlier edition (1951) by Mildred Dawson adds chapters on reading and language in the kindergarten and treats spelling and handwriting in separate chapters. Written for both teachers in service and in training, it covers the varied aspects of an elementary school language arts program.

The authors take a “child development approach” to language learning by stressing readiness, aptitude, experience and interests of the child, and a psychological ordering of language experiences. The importance of learning language through lifelike situations

is emphasized, with drill on mechanics assumed to be unnecessary unless proven otherwise. One can question whether the teacher can provide all the necessary practice on fundamentals in all the parts of the language arts and for adequate control of the scope and sequence of the language program without a regular schedule of direct instruction in all branches of the language arts. The authors endorse this point of view in regard to some aspects of language learning. For spelling the teacher is advised to have a “weekly schedule for direct instruction.” The handwriting program described suggests the order of teaching to be: one, careful instruction; two, drill; finally, application of the skill.

The book has many excellent features as well. Never has this reviewer read a more explicit discussion of the developmental steps in teaching children to write. For teachers confused as to exactly how one guides children's expression of ideas through writing, this book is a good reference. The objectives of a language program outlined are valuable. The degree of mechanical exactness the teacher should expect in the writing of the normal learner is always rather puzzling. The standards set here seem important and within the ability of children at the various grade levels.—Reviewed by PATRICK J. GROFF, assistant professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN AMERICA, A NEW INTERPRETATION OF PURPOSE AND PRACTICE. Edited by George Z. F. Bereday and Luigi Volpicelli. New York: Harper & Bros. 49 E. 33rd St., 1958. Pp. 212. \$4. In this volume the reader may obtain a comprehensive view of problems and achievements of educational institutions from the elementary school through the college level. Seventeen leaders of educational thought and practice have contributed their appraisals of the American school system.

Each chapter is devoted to a single topic such as the private school in American education, philosophical theories of education, Federal control for American schools and the teaching of international relations.

The book is not intended for the specialist. Rather, it has been written for a wide audience including parents, taxpayers and students in foreign lands. The student as well as the instructor will find the seventeen chapters a handy reference for an overview of purposes,

achievements and problems of American education. In most instances, chapters contain helpful notes and bibliographical data which would require much time and effort for the reader to obtain through his own efforts.—Reviewed by CLIFFORD D. FOSTER, assistant professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.

FOOD GUIDE AND QUANTITY COOKING FOR YOUNG CHILDREN. By Community Council of Greater New York. New York: Harper & Bros. 49 E. 33rd St., 1958. Pp. 189. \$4.95. The kind words written by Dr. Benjamin Spock in the foreword to this book are well taken. It is an exhaustive treatment of various problems which face the administrator of an elementary school lunch program and includes such topics as "Home-School Nutrition Planning," "The Nutritional Needs of the Young Child" and "Menu Planning."

Possibly the strongest feature of the book is the extensive collection of recipes suitable for preschool and elementary school age children. Also useful to the administrator are

practical suggestions on such facilities as kitchen equipment, heights and sizes of tables and chairs, and refrigeration. Even estimates of the appropriate capacities of refrigerators for groups of varying sizes are provided.

A persistent problem to school administrators is the employment of cafeteria cooks and managers whose experience has been limited chiefly to commercial enterprises. This text will serve to orient them to the peculiarities of large-scale cooking for young people and other related problems which are so different from serving the general adult public.—Reviewed by ROBERT R. NARDELLI, associate professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.

ESSENTIALS OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY (formerly published as *Elementary Educational Psychology*). By Charles E. Skinner, Ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 5th Ave., 1958. Pp. 528. \$6.50. It is becoming difficult to find a recent book in educational psychology that is not well written, thorough and scholarly. Certainly this third edition, written by six recog-

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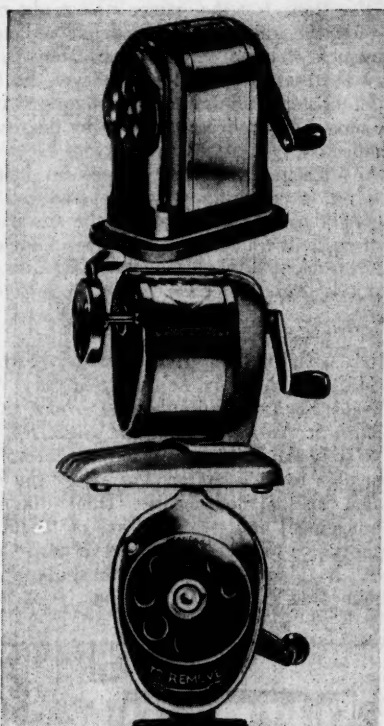
Unlike the previous revision, the organization is more significantly changed. The five main parts are entitled "Psychology in Teaching," "Human Growth and Development," "Learning," "Adjustment and Mental Hygiene" and "Evaluation and Guidance." A new addition is the appendix, which features a list of useful films, and a section which explains fundamental statistical concepts. The editor has apparently resisted the temptation to expand the text, as this version is some sixty-four pages and two chapters smaller in size than the previous edition. A few readers may object somewhat to the omission of the detailed topical outline of chapter contents found in former volumes. This is now broader in scope and numbers fewer items. Bibliographies and many references are up to date, with most of the important recent studies included.

The book should be a helpful reference, either as an overview and introduction to educational psychology for beginners or as an integration of numerous ideas for more experienced persons.—Reviewed by PETER C. GEGA, assistant professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.

PSYCHOLOGY IN THE CLASSROOM. By Rudolph Dreikurs. New York: Harper & Bros., 49 E. 33rd St., 1957. Pp. 237. \$3.75.

To those of us who have been wanting to believe that the schools, whether elementary, secondary or collegiate, cannot promote the intellectual life of the learner without at the same time promoting in balance his emotional and social life, this book comes as a great fortifier. Just now it appears that the Sputniks have given the "intellectualists" (i.e., those who restrict their responsibility to the learner's intellectual life) a great opportunity to take us back to a day that ought to be considered anachronistic in educational circles. To face this regression, we need just such inspiration and just such increased intellectual insight into this problem of stimulating the whole child to grow as this book gives.—Reviewed by A. MAX CARMICHAEL, professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.

THE BEST SINGING GAMES. By Edgar S. Bley. New York: Sterling Publishing Co., 121 E. 24th St., 1957. Pp. 96. \$2.95. This book is outstanding in many ways. The songs include well-known folksongs as well as many



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less familiar ones. The piano accompaniments are arranged to meet the demands of the pianist who is not too skilled.

Directions for the games are made clear through the addition of appropriate and clever drawings of children in action. Many songs may be used at several grade levels because different steps and motions are suggested from the most uncomplicated to varying degrees of complexity.

Any teacher who wishes ideas for helping children to create their own steps as well giving children a foundation of the traditional routines will find herein a wealth of ideas.—*Reviewed by DONALD GRISIER, associate professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.*

THE NEUROSES AND THEIR TREATMENT. Edited by Edward Podolsky, M.D. New York: Philosophical Library, 15 E. 40th St. No Publishing date given. Pp. 555.

\$10. In the foreword the author states, "The neuroses form a major portion of the emotional ills of modern life. Their diagnosis, management and treatment are of the utmost importance to every physician in active practice. It is for this reason that the present volume has come into existence. It is a col-

lection of papers (37) by eminent authorities in the field on all phases of the neurosis." The book is a collection of recent articles taken from medical periodicals. It gives a medical point of view with respect to the treatment of neuroses. The orientation is, however, essentially a medical one, being more concerned with treatment than with any theoretical discussion of speculation with respect to causation, with the exception of a few psychoanalytically oriented writers. The psychologically oriented reader would be interested particularly in the articles dealing with drug therapy. Studies in this book include the use of tranquilizers with older people, cases of anxiety neurosis, hyperkinetic emotionally disturbed children.

Although the articles collected in this volume are of a high professional caliber, the reviewer has some reservations regarding the publication. The book has not been dated, and all references and bibliographies have been excluded. Although the original sources of the articles are given, the dates of their publication are not included. This type of publishing procedure is questioned by the reviewer.—*Reviewed by BJORN KARLSEN, associate professor of education, San Diego State College, Calif.*



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Bulletins and Pamphlets

Editor, HELEN COWAN WOOD

USING COMMITTEES IN THE CLASS-ROOMS. By Louise E. Hock. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 232 Madison Ave., 1958. Pp. 54. \$1. This concise pamphlet, designed to help teachers, supervisors, principals and lay persons sharpen their understandings of one of the most important phases of group participation, is especially timely. Everyone concerned with teaching today should be alert to approaches that keep learning vital, active, significant and creative. Committee work, carefully planned, can do these very things.

Occasions for committee work are clearly stated. Some of them are: handling administrative details; stretching out time; improving the quality of living; providing wider opportunity for individual participation and interaction; developing skills of communication, critical thinking and reasoning; developing qualities of leadership. Who can deny that these purposes are not significant for our present society?

This pamphlet is valuable for the inexperienced teacher because it gives specific steps in doing committee work. Suggested are the need for careful preliminary planning; bases for membership in committees; class size; environmental conditions; "rules of the game" or "how to do it"; assuming individual or group responsibility; learning skills; using resources; reporting progress.

One of the most important sections lists a variety of ways to evaluate growth and achievement. One moves forward on the basis of what he has accomplished. This pamphlet should be in every elementary school!—Reviewed by LOVELLE C. DOWNING, director of curriculum, K-6, Modesto City Schools, Calif.

CURRICULUM AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PLANT. By Helen Heffernan and Charles Bursch. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201 16th St., N. W., 1958. Pp. 80. \$1.50. As the title suggests, this pamphlet considers the question: Elementary school buildings for what? The planning and constructing of new school buildings have become big business. The three C's—children, curriculum, and cost—concern everyone.

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To know that the writers, Helen Heffernan and the late Charles Bursch, have had years of rich and varied experiences to draw upon gives additional weight and value to this outstanding pamphlet.—L.C.D.

ORGANIZING DISTRICTS FOR BETTER SCHOOLS. By C. O. Fitzwater. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, Bulletin 1958, No. 9. Pp. 49.

25¢. This is a summary of school district reorganization programs in sixteen states, briefing the longer report made last year in order to make this material more readily available to planning groups and lay citizens generally. These various programs are analyzed to indicate the factors which seem to facilitate or hinder reorganization. A section on policies and procedures is offered as a guide for successful reorganization programs, discussing important considerations in legislation, setting up state and county administrative agencies, developing plans, providing incentives, and other steps in the process. Reviewed by MARTHA FOX, principal, Cram Elementary School, East Highlands, California.

TOWARD BETTER ADJUSTED CHILDREN. By Walter Sites and Marcella S. Farrar. Cleveland: Welfare Federation of Cleveland, 1957. Pp. 72. 50¢. This is a descriptive statement of school pupil-personnel services and community agency programs in Cleveland and how the two are related, prepared as a first step toward more effective school-community cooperation for children and youth. The report sets forth principles

and procedures for a good pupil-personnel program in the schools. A second section presents information about community social services so that maximum use may be made of these resources by the schools, describing procedures in working relationships between school and agency and outlining agency functions, scope and practice. This publication should be a valuable source of suggestions for other communities where a better understanding of each other's goals, ways of working, resources and limitations can lead to closer working relationships between the various groups concerned with children's welfare.—H.C.W.

PUBLIC OPINION POLLS ON AMERICAN EDUCATION. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., 1958. Pp. 20. 15¢.

What general opinions stand out when the results of eight years of public opinion polls on the schools are added up? This summary of major polls reported between January 1950 and April 1958 attempts to answer this question. Some of the general opinions reported here are these: (1) The public strongly endorses the basic goals of American education: to create an enlightened, loyal and responsible electorate, and to provide all American children with education according to their abilities. (2) Curriculum offerings should be improved, but many persons do not hold definite opinions as to what should be done. (3) For the most part, the American public is more convinced of the value of practical training than of the value of a strictly academic education. (4) Educators expect more from the schools academically than the general public does. (5) A majority of the American public favors Federal financial support for education to eliminate educational shortages of classrooms, teachers and equipment.—H.C.W.

THE BEGINNING TEACHER: A SURVEY OF NEW TEACHERS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS 1956-1957, PRELIMINARY REPORT. Office of Education Circular No. 510. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1958. Pp. 56. 40¢. This report is based on partial returns from a questionnaire sent to more than 10,000 beginning teachers, dealing with their qualifications, experience, salary, work situation and commitment to a teaching career. Highlights of the report include the following facts: (1) For the nation as a

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

whole, the median salary of teachers beginning their careers in 1956-57 was \$3,600. Regionally the highest median salary was found in the Far West, \$4,000; the lowest was in the Upper South, \$2,750. (2) Twenty per cent of beginning teachers had emergency or sub-standard certificates. Fourteen per cent did not have a bachelor's degree. (3) In terms of plans for the fall of the next year, nineteen per cent of the men and fifteen per cent of the women did not expect to be teaching.

The final report, based on a larger sample, will be more reliable and complete. Information will be reported on other items in the questionnaire such as the beginner's evaluation of his professional training, his feelings about restrictions and his personal life, and his opinion of teaching as a career.—Reviewed by MARY ALBERTA CHOATE, assistant professor of education, University of Oregon.

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROJECTS.

Fiscal 1957. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1958. Pp. 63. 25¢. This first report on the new cooperative research program between the Federal education office and state agencies, universities and colleges will be read with

great interest. The projects reported here deal mainly with education of the mentally retarded, since two-thirds of the original appropriation under Public Law 531 was earmarked for this purpose. The thirty additional projects started during the year were on a variety of educational problems in fields which had been set up as priority areas. In addition to progress reports on the actual research, the bulletin contains a description of the entire program under way, the status at the end of the first year, and procedures for proposing and initiating new projects to receive financial support under the Federal program.—H.C.W.

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY. By Ernest E. Bayles. *Kansas Studies in Education, Vol. 8, No. 2. Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas, 1958. Pp. 32.* The author offers a definition of "democracy," that broad term of many meanings, in this thoughtful discussion. He goes on to discuss the implications for education if democracy is held to be, as he proposes, "equality of opportunity to participate in making group decisions and equality of obligation to participate in carrying them out."—H.C.W.

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Over the Editor's Desk

Dear Readers:

Children observe Valentine's Day by playing postman and delivering Valentines, by calling on the "post office" constructed in their room, or by "purchasing" Valentines with play money in the "store."

The old-fashioned Valentine Box, which fosters competition among children ("How many did you get?" . . . "I have the biggest and prettiest ones."), may be gradually disappearing. Some schools have abandoned the custom of exchanging Valentines, recognizing that too often commercialism and competition obscure its real meaning. Instead they contribute the amounts they might have spent on Valentines to a worthy cause. In other schools, children create original Valentines, with premium on using initiative in expression of ideas, sharing materials and helping each other clean up after work time. In still other schools, children make Valentine cookies—a cooking experience long to be remembered, for it brings into use so many of the senses: touching, smelling and tasting. It too is an experience with value on the "give and take" of many working on one project, concluding with a party.

And now to the "I love you" on Valentines, which has sparked a chain reaction of thoughts and set me to exploring the use of the word "love."

You do not find it difficult to associate the word "love" with family, husband or wife or fiancé. But you need not *love* every child in your class. (If you're honest, there may be one you cannot, for various reasons.) Then try substituting the phrase "continuing good will toward" for the word "love" as suggested by a minister whom Jessie Stanton heard. You, the teacher, can have "continuing good will toward" every child even though you do not like what he does. You may condemn his behavior but never *him*! For his security, his feeling of belonging and his success in achieving and in learning in general, "continuing good will toward him" is essential.

By the same token you may not be able to "love" your neighbors. But try "continuing good will toward" them. I appreciated the fact that my one-time next-door neighbor had

"continuing good will toward" me after I had carelessly left the water running on my side of the garden fence until it soaked her side and nearly uprooted her favorite bush. She probably did not like what I did but she continued to be friendly.

Gandhi, in speaking of his social and political enemies said, "We may attack measures and systems. We may not, we must not attack men. Imperfect ourselves, we must be tender toward others . . . forgiveness is more manly than punishment."¹

One could follow this same line of logic to include peoples of all nations, races and mankind in general.

In searching for a satisfactory phrase or word for expression of feeling good about ourselves (self-concept), we cannot rightly say "love," "like" or "continuing good will toward." It seems to be *self-respect* and *knowing oneself*. "Knowing oneself" embraces the idea of knowing one's strengths and one's limitations:

being able to say "no"—even against strong group pressure
accepting criticism without becoming overly upset

being unafraid to try something new
being firm in simplifying daily tasks when activities overcrowd the day
taking our own limitations in stride
being less critical of other people

In short, being free to be ourselves, reaching toward our own potentialities but most importantly helping others to realize theirs.²

Now, I must not keep you from opening that smudgy envelope. Will it be a Valentine like this?



Sincerely,

Margaret Baermann

¹ Fischer, Louis. *The Life of Mahatma Gandhi*, Harper & Bros., 1950.

² Paraphrased from Richard M. Brandt's article, "Children Who Know and Like Themselves," *Childhood Education*, March 1957, p. 303.



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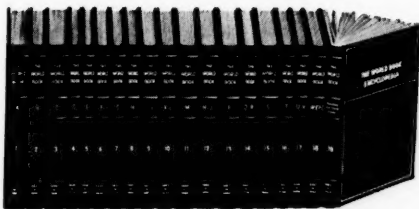
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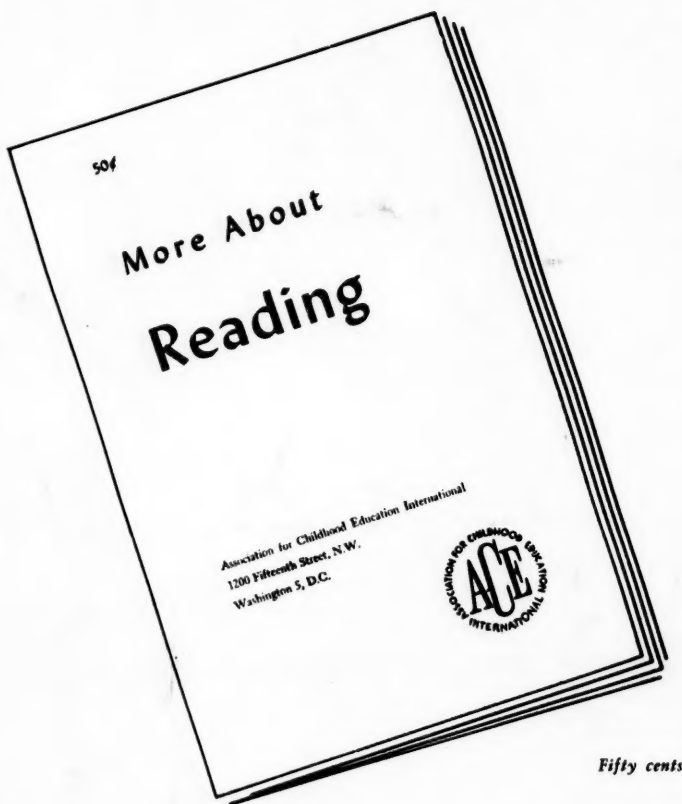


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